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ABSTRACT

The two issues in this volume of the "JALT Journal" contain the following articles: "Comprehension and Production Practice in Grammar Instruction: Does Their Combined Use Facilitate Second Language Acquisition?" (Takeo Tanaka); "Professional Development and the JET Program: Insights and Solutions Based on the Sendai City Program" (Anthony Crooks); "Language Learning Motivation of EFL Learners in Japan: A Cross-Sectional Analysis of Various Learning Milieus" (Yuzo Kimura, Yoshiyuki Nakata, and Tomomi Okumura); "Beliefs about Learning and Teaching Communicative English in Japan" (Hiroko Matsuura, Reiko Chiba, and Paul Hilderbrandt); "What Counts in the Acquisition and Attrition of Numeral Classifiers?" (Lynne Hansen and Yung-Lin Chen); "An Analysis of Discourse Miscues in the Oral Production of Non-Native Speakers of English" (V. Michael Cribb); "Tools of Recursion, Intermental Zones of Proximal Development, and Critical Collaborative Autonomy" (Tim Murphey); "L2 Learners' Strategic Mental Processes during a Listening Test" (Naoko Taguchi); "How Reliable and Valid Is the Japanese Version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)?" (Gordon Robson and Hideko Midorikawa); "Quiet Apprehension: Reading and Classroom Anxieties" (Sae Matsuda and Peter Gobel); and "A Rationale for L1-to-L2 Literacy Translation in College EFL Instruction" (James W. Porcaro). The journal issues in this volume also include reviews of 10 books on such topics as researching and applying metaphor, language teaching, the evolution of written English, and critical applied linguistics. (SM)

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The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of more than 3,500 language teachers. There are 39 JALT chapters in Japan, one affiliate chapter, 13 Special Interest Groups (SIGs), three affiliate SIGs, and three forming SIGs. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and is a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

JALT publishes *JALT Journal*, a semiannual research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a monthly magazine containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and *JALT International Conference Proceedings*.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 300 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Local meetings are held by each JALT chapter and JALT's SIGs provide information on specific concerns. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes, and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes enrollment in the nearest chapter, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥1,500 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office.

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In This Issue

Articles

Leading off the main section is a research report by **Takeo Tanaka** on grammar teaching in the Japanese EFL situation and the positive learning outcomes achieved by combining production and comprehension practice of target grammar structures. The article makes pedagogical recommendations for an often-neglected aspect of grammar instruction. This is followed by three articles investigating aspects of EFL instruction in Japan. **Anthony Crooks** addresses professional development for EFL teachers at the secondary school level in his discussion of the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program, suggesting that both the native English speaking Assistant English Teachers (AETs) and the Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) need considerable preparation for communicative language teaching and more in-service support if they are to fulfil the goals set by the Monbusho. **Yuzo Kimura**, **Yoshiyuki Nakata** and **Tomomi Okumura** follow with a survey analysis of English language learning motivation in junior high school, high school, junior college and university students. The authors identify six motivational factors and conclude that motivation in the Japanese EFL situation is complex and varies across instructional situations. Next, **Hiroko Matsuura**, **Reiko Chiba** and **Paul Hilderbrandt** use a survey to compare Japanese university EFL learner and teacher beliefs about learning and teaching communicative English. They note that while the teachers surveyed preferred newer, learner-centered methods that aim to develop fluency, many students preferred traditional types of instruction, including lectures, translation, and pronunciation lessons. The final paper, by **Lynne Hansen** and **Yung-Lin Chen,** compares second language acquisition and attrition sequences of numeral classifiers in Japanese and Chinese from the perspectives of markedness theory, frequency and the regression hypothesis. Their data supports

the suggestion that language attrition occurs in reverse order to the acquisition process; thus, the last learned is the first forgotten and the first learned is retained the longest.

Research Forum

In this section a qualitative investigation by **V. Michael Cribb** examines the unplanned target language discourse of four Korean non-native speakers of English and identifies miscues that lead to a lack of coherence.

Perspectives

Using a Vygotskian perspective, **Tim Murphey** presents action research examining the development of metacognitive analytical ability in advanced Japanese EFL learners taking a course on second language acquisition. Using the concept of "critical collaborative autonomy," he suggests students can achieve more through dialogue with other learners than they can through independent study.

Reviews

Topics addressed in book reviews by **Jonathan Picken, Robert Mahon, Darren P. Bologna, Marshall R. Childs, John Katunich** and **David P. Shea** include research on metaphor use, a collection of papers presented at the 1998 RELC conference in Singapore, an intermediate reading text, a history of languages, and the history and evolution of English writing.

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From the Editors

With this issue we welcome **Brad Visgatis** to the *JALT Journal* Editorial Advisory Board and thank departing Board members **Thomas Hardy** and **Peter Robinson** for their years of service.

Conference News

The 27th JALT Annual International Conference on Language Teaching/Learning and Educational Materials Exposition will be held on November 22-25, 2001, in Kitakyushu, Japan. The conference theme is *2001: A Language Odyssey*. Contact the JALT Central Office or the JALT website at <www.jalt.org> for information.

Editorial Transition

This is my final issue as editor and I feel very privileged to have brought the *JALT Journal* into the 21st Century and to have been associated with the extremely capable Editorial Board members, co-editors and staff, and hard-working and cooperative authors. To all of you my deepest thanks! From now on the new *JALT Journal* editor, **Nicholas O. Jungheim**, will receive manuscripts submitted to the main section of the journal, to Research Forum, and to Point to Point. **Donna Tatsuki**, the new Associate Editor, will receive Perspectives submissions, and **Sayoko Yamashita**, the new Japanese-language Editor, will receive Japanese-language submissions.

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Articles

Comprehension and Production Practice in Grammar Instruction: Does Their Combined Use Facilitate Second Language Acquisition?

Takeo Tanaka
Yamanashi University

Grammar instruction usually consists of explanation, feedback, and practice. Recent studies (e.g., Dekeyser & Sokalski, 1996; Ellis, 1993, 1995; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993) focus on the relative effectiveness of comprehension and production practice in grammar instruction yet tend to treat the two forms of practice as mutually exclusive. Previous studies on input and output processing in second language acquisition, however, indicate that comprehension and production practice each play unique roles in the development of knowledge, promoting accurate and fluent language use. Suggesting that the two forms of practice can be complementary, this study examines the effects of combining comprehension and production practice in grammar instruction and considers the role of practice in second language acquisition.

第二言語の授業での文法指導において，一般的に文法説明とともに目標項目の練習が行われる．文法指導の練習の区分の一つとして，理解型の練習と表出型の練習がある．最近の研究では，文法指導におけるこの２つの練習の効果が比較検討されてきているが，これらの研究においてこの２つの練習の役割は別々に切り離して捉えられる傾向にある．本研究では，理解型の練習と表出型の練習を組み合わせた場合，個々に練習を行う場合よりも練習効果が大きくなるとの仮説を立て，心理動詞を目標構造とし日本人短大生を被験者として，練習効果を測定する実験を行った．その結果，理解型と表出型の練習を組み合わせた文法指導は，個々に練習を行う文法指導よりも効果的な学習をもたらし，その指導効果が持続することが明らかになった．

Studies on the role of grammar instruction in second language acquisition have generally investigated whether specific grammatical structures can be acquired through formal instruction (e.g., Pica, 1983; White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991) yet, as some researchers have pointed out (e.g., Ellis, 1997; Spada, 1997), many of these studies have not examined the instructional procedures used.

Increasingly, however, the focus of research is shifting to investigation of what methods of instruction yield significant effects (e.g., Doughty, 1991; Fotos, 1994).

This article focuses on the role of practice in grammar instruction. It reports on the results of several recent studies (e.g., Salaberry, 1997; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993) which compare the relative effectiveness of comprehension-based and production-based grammar instruction, noting that these studies have treated comprehension and production practice as disparate means for learning. However, this paper suggests that the two forms of practice can play complementary roles in promoting the acquisition of grammatical structures and presents an empirical study on the effects of combined practice in grammar learning.

Comprehension Practice Versus Production Practice in Grammar Instruction

There is general agreement among theorists that, for second language acquisition to take place, learners must receive comprehensible input in the target language (Ellis, 1985; Gass, 1988; Krashen, 1982). In addition, Schmidt (1990) suggests that second language acquisition is facilitated not only by understanding the meaning of the input, but also by noticing specific structures while processing the input. Although these theories recognize the importance of input-based instruction for grammar learning, it has been pointed out that many current textbooks and grammar instruction materials employ only production practice for grammar instruction (Ellis, 1993, 1995; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993). Ellis (1993) considers this tendency problematic for several reasons. First, according to Pienemann's learnability hypothesis (Pienemann, 1985) asking learners to produce target structures they are not developmentally ready to produce may hinder their successful acquisition of the forms. Furthermore, requiring learners to produce target structures they find difficult may arouse their anxiety, thus blocking acquisition (Krashen, 1982).

Comprehension practice has therefore been advanced as an alternative to the production practice traditionally utilized in grammar instruction. In comprehension practice learners focus their attention on a target structure while processing input. Such practice does not require the learners' production of the target structure following the grammar explanation. Rather, they read or listen to a text containing specific target structures and indicate their understanding of it. Such comprehension-based instruction is thought to circumvent both the learnability problem and anxiety that might impede acquisition (Ellis, 1993, 1995;

VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993).

Several recent studies provide evidence for the advantage of instruction utilizing comprehension practice. For example, VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) compared the effect of comprehension-based instruction with that of production-based instruction for 129 university learners of Spanish. The comprehension-based instruction group was given an explanation of Spanish object clitic pronouns followed by comprehension practice. The production-based instruction group received the same explanation followed by production practice. Both groups received a comprehension test and a production test in pretest and posttest format. The results of the first posttest given immediately after instruction showed that the comprehension-based instruction group gained on both comprehension and production test scores, whereas the production-based instruction group only gained on the production test, not on the comprehension test. The second posttest conducted one month later produced the same results. The authors therefore suggested that comprehension practice in grammar instruction can lead to more effective learning.

Cadierno (1995) and Cheng (1995) conducted similar studies directed at the acquisition of the Spanish past tense and the durative and punctual aspects respectively. Their results confirmed VanPatten and Cadierno's results showing that comprehension-based instruction was more beneficial than production-based instruction. VanPatten and his associates' studies thus indicated that comprehension-based grammar instruction should replace traditional production-based instruction in grammar classrooms (Cadierno, 1995; Ellis, 1993, 1995; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993).

Other studies, however, obtained results contrary to those of VanPatten and his associates. Salaberry (1997) replicated VanPatten and Cadierno's 1993 study but failed to show an advantage for instruction using comprehension practice. In order to examine the acquisition of Spanish clitic pronouns by 26 university students, the study administered a written comprehension test, a written production test, and a free-writing narration test. Both the production-based instruction and the comprehension-based instruction groups showed similar improvement on the comprehension test, but neither group showed a gain on the production test or on the free narrative test. Dekeyser and Sokalski's (1996) study, which replicated Dekeyser's (1996) pilot study focusing on the clitic pronouns and the conditional in Spanish, also found no advantage for comprehension-based instruction.

Consequently, although studies have sought to investigate the effects of comprehension and production practice on the acquisition of

different grammatical structures, it remains unclear which of these two forms of practice is more effective. One problem with the studies discussed above is that they treat comprehension and production practice as mutually exclusive. Speculating that the two forms of practice play different roles in developing learners' grammatical knowledge, it can be suggested that both types of practice are necessary and can play complementary roles in grammar instruction.

The Roles of Practice in Grammar Instruction

Before a closer examination of the roles that comprehension and production practice can play in the process of second language acquisition, it is necessary to briefly consider the current role of practice in grammar instruction.

Types of Practice

Practice in grammar instruction can be carried out in two general ways. There is practice that aims to consolidate the learning of grammatical rules, often called *controlled practice* (Ellis, 1991), and there is practice that requires learners to fully employ the grammar rules in a communicative situation, this called *free practice* (Ellis, 1991; Littlewood, 1981; Rivers, 1983). Controlled practice focuses on the use of specific grammatical structures to perform tasks whereas free practice is geared primarily to having learners communicate as best they can with the knowledge they currently possess rather than to deliberately use targeted language structures.

The present study focuses on controlled practice, practice which explicitly targets a specific structure. Controlled practice can be divided into three types, *mechanical, meaningful* and *communicative*, according to the degree of control the learners have over the response (Paulston, 1971) and the nature of cognitive processes during practice (Dekeyser, 1998; Yamaoka, 1992). Repetition, substitution, or transformation of target structures fall under mechanical practice. In this type of practice the learners can perform a task without linking the structure and its meaning since they do not have to understand what they are saying to complete the task. In contrast, meaningful practice requires the learners to attend to meaning, although the interlocutor already knows the response. In communicative practice the learners must manage content unknown to the interlocutor. For example, in order to communicatively practice the past tense of verbs, students are asked to use target verbs to describe what they did or did not do

over the weekend (e.g., given the verb "play," the students make sentences such as "I played tennis with my friends on Sunday" or " I did not play tennis on Sunday."). Practice is thus controlled because it focuses on the use of a specific structure but it is also meaningful because it requires the students to use the structure to express meaning. The purpose of this type of practice is to develop the learners' ability to synthesize the parts of language. However, both meaningful and communicative practice require the learners to link a form to its meaning to complete the task and are thought to develop the learners' ability to use a language for real communication (Dekeyser, 1998). In this paper the term "practice" therefore refers to meaningful or communicative controlled practice.

How Practice Promotes Second Language Acquisition

Arguments have been made regarding the role of grammar instruction in second language acquisition and whether or not "learned" knowledge gained during instruction can become "acquired" knowledge necessary for using a language for communication (Bialystock, 1981; Krashen, 1985; McLaughlin, 1978; Seliger, 1979). Although it is difficult to draw firm conclusions, the evidence available from research suggests that learned knowledge may be acquired if learners are ready to incorporate grammatical rules into their interlanguage systems (Ellis, 1997; Pienemann, 1985). Moreover, it has also been suggested that practice is a means whereby learned knowledge is transformed into acquired knowledge (Bialystock, 1981; McLaughlin, 1987; McLaughlin, Rossman & McLeod, 1983; Sharwood Smith, 1981). However, it has yet to be clarified precisely how practice functions in the development of acquired knowledge.

In order to obtain some insight into the roles of comprehension and production practice let us consider a mental representation of the learners' knowledge. Bialystock and Sharwood Smith (1985) suggest that second language acquisition can be viewed in terms of control and knowledge. Control refers to how existing knowledge is utilized during actual performance and knowledge refers to how the language system is represented in long-term storage. This concept of control is similar to the concept of language processing proposed by Shiffrin and Schneider (1977) and McLaughlin, et al. (1983). According to their view, learning a language is a progression from limited and controlled processing of information requiring much cognitive effort to automatic processing with little effort in handling a lot of information simulta-

neously.

It is not controversial that repeated practice facilitates automatization of information processing (Dekeyser, 1996; McLaughlin, et al., 1983). Comprehension practice develops the learners' ability to comprehend the meaning of a spoken or written passage, establishing form-meaning connections of target structures in the input (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; Terrell, 1991), whereas production practice develops the learners' ability to formulate a message and convey it in spoken or written form. Form-meaning connections of target structures are reinforced in producing language and learners gain faster access to the structure (de Bot, 1996; Swain, 1995; Terrell, 1991). Thus both comprehension and production practice function to automatize the receptive and productive language processing. Automatization is believed to reduce the cognitive load imposed on working memory and to facilitate ongoing language comprehension and production (VanPatten, 1987).

Another aspect concerns the development of knowledge. Here second language acquisition is viewed as knowledge construction in terms of quantity and quality. The "quantity" of knowledge refers to how much the learners know about the language system and the "quality" of knowledge refers to how the learners have organized the system in their minds. A substantial body of research indicates that comprehension and production practice may serve independent but significant roles in the construction of the learners' knowledge system. In comprehension practice, the learners notice the form and function of a specific structure (see Schmidt, 1990) and compare the noticed structure with their existing knowledge (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Skehan, 1998). It is thought that in doing so, the learners integrate the structure into their own interlanguage systems (McLaughlin, 1990; Skehan, 1998). During production practice, the learners perceive a gap in what they want to say and what they are able to say, resulting in increased awareness of those structures so that they are noticed in subsequent input (de Bot, 1996; Swain, 1993, 1995). Through production practice, learners can also test out their knowledge of the target language when they receive feedback from interlocutors. During this process they may also restructure their existing interlanguage systems (de Bot, 1996; Swain, 1985, 1993, 1995). Furthermore, it has been suggested that the learners' own output may serve as additional input (Sharwood Smith, 1981).

The automatization of information processing can thus be achieved through practice. Gradually learners gain the capacity to deal with new information, thereby increasing their quantity and quality of knowl-

edge. If second language acquisition involves the development of these two mental mechanisms (i.e., the automatization of information processing and the construction of knowledge), then it appears that both comprehension practice and production practice are important in grammar learning and each has a unique role to play.

The Present Study

If it is true that each form of practice serves a unique role, then it can be suggested that comprehension and production practice complement each other in the development of learners' interlanguage systems. The effects of comprehension practice can be reinforced by production practice and vice versa. It should be noted, however, that there have been few attempts to confirm the effectiveness of combining the two forms of practice for grammar learning (Ellis, 1998). What effects, if any, are gained? The question is intriguing and important.

In a preliminary study Tanaka (1999) investigated whether combining the two forms of practice would yield better results in a study of relative clause sentences in both written and spoken modes. Relative clause sentences are characterized by a complex syntactic structure that includes the relationship between the relative clause and its matrix sentence (O'Grady, 1997). The subjects of the experiment were Japanese EFL (English as a foreign language) students from a high school and a junior college. They were divided into three groups according to the type of practice they received after an explanation of the target grammar structure. One group was given comprehension practice, another group was given production practice, and the third group was given a combination of comprehension and production practice. The results of this preliminary study indicated that combining comprehension and production practice led to more effective grammar learning and that the effect was sustained over time for both written and spoken modes of practice.

In the current study a less complex syntactic structure was targeted to see if similar results would be obtained.

Research Questions

The present study follows Tanaka's earlier study (1999) in order to further investigate the effects of combined production and comprehension practice. As before, two research questions were considered:

(1) Does a combination of comprehension practice and production practice bring about better learning than their separate use by a sample of Japanese junior college EFL learners?

(2) If so, are these results maintained over time?

Method

Subjects

The initial 130 subjects in this study were drawn from four intact classes taught by the researcher in the English language department of a private junior college in Osaka, Japan. The subjects were Japanese first and second year English majors enrolled in weekly ninety-minute classes that focused on developing their English communication skills. They were mostly female (male to female: 10:120) ranging in age from 18 to 20. Since the students had had to pass the school's entrance examination, including an English proficiency test, it is suggested that they were quite homogeneous in terms of their English proficiency. The mean TOEIC score for the school was 319.4 points. The number of subjects was reduced to 65 by omitting those who scored 90% and above on the pretest and those who did not take one of the treatments or tests.

The subjects were divided into four groups according to the type of practice given (see Figure 3): The first group (Prod-Group: $n = 15$) was given production practice only. The second group (Comp-Group: $n = 22$) was given comprehension practice only. The third group (Mixed-Group: $n = 15$) was given both comprehension and production practice. The fourth group (Control-Group: $n = 13$) was not given any form of practice.

A listening test developed by the researcher (see Appendix 1) was administered to compare the general English aural proficiency levels of the four groups prior to instruction. The listening test required the subjects to answer 12 tape-recorded questions. The results of the test are shown in Table 1. The Levene homogeneity of variance test revealed that there was equal variance among the listening test scores of the four groups (the Levene statistic is .071, $p = .98$), thus the four groups were considered equivalent in their initial English proficiency.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the Listening Test

	N	Means	SD	Range
Comp-Group	22	5.59	1.76	3-9
Prod-Group	15	5.93	1.98	3-9
Mixed-Group	15	5.87	2.03	2-9
Control-Group	13	6.69	1.97	2-9
Total	65	5.95	1.92	2-9

Note: Maximum score = 12

Target Structure

Psychological verbs in English indicate an affective state. Examples of this type of verb include *like*, *bore*, and *worry*. It has been suggested that such verbs constitute psychological predicate constructions which are problematic for English language learners (Burt, 1975). Psychological verbs have been divided into two types according to the nature of their syntactic structure (Belletti & Rizzi, 1988). As shown in Figure 1-(1), the first type of verb is referred to as the "Fear type." Here the subject of the sentence, *people*, functions as the experiencer of the psychological verb *like*, and its object, *dogs*, functions as the theme of the sentence. The second type of psychological verb, shown in Figure 1-(2), is referred to as the "Worry type." Here the subject of the sentence, *people*, functions as the theme and the object, *dogs*, functions as the experiencer of the verb *disgust*.

Figure 1: Types of Psychological Verbs

(1) The Fear Type	(2) The Worry Type
People like dogs.	*People disgust dogs.*
[experiencer theme]	[theme experiencer]

The word order of the Fear type is considered less marked in English (e.g., *like*, *enjoy*, *want*), while that of the Worry type (e.g., *disgust*, *depress*, *frighten*) is considered more marked and problematic (see Ellis, 1997). Learners are likely to overgeneralize the Fear-type pattern, thus mistaking Worry-type sentences as Fear-type sentences. For example, the meaning of the sentence *People disgust dogs* is often mistaken as *Dogs make people disgusted* by learners of English.

In order to comprehend or produce psychological verbs correctly, learners need to understand that psychological verbs are divided into two types according to the word order of the sentence and then must correctly identify the verb type. An unpublished pilot study conducted with different subjects (n = 68) suggested that it is difficult for Japanese EFL learners to comprehend sentences that include psychological verbs so it was determined psychological verbs would be an appropriate target structure for measuring the effectiveness of practice.

Procedures and Materials

The experiment included a pretest followed a week later by grammar instruction consisting of explanation and the different practice regimes. In order to examine the effectiveness of practice, two posttests were

given after the instruction. Posttest 1 was conducted a week after the instruction and posttest 2 one month after the instruction.

Pretest/Posttests

Natural communication requires the learners' psycholinguistic ability to comprehend and produce the target language accurately and fluently. In order to measure this ability, it is important to employ meaning-focused tasks that demand the subjects' full attention to the message while processing the language accurately in a limited time (Ellis, 1997).

The subjects received both aural comprehension tests and verbal production tests. Each test consisted of ten questions including four Fear-type verbs and six Worry-type verbs for a maximum possible score of ten (see Figure 2 for the test sentences and Appendices 2 and 3 for the drawings corresponding to these sentences). The 4-6 split in test items was made because an earlier unpublished pilot study indicated that Japanese EFL students had more difficulty in identifying the experiencer of the Worry-type sentences than the Fear-type. Thus, the tests were designed to be a little more challenging to the subjects. Figure 2 shows the test sentences. The underlined numbers indicate Worry-type sentences.

Figure 2: Test Sentences

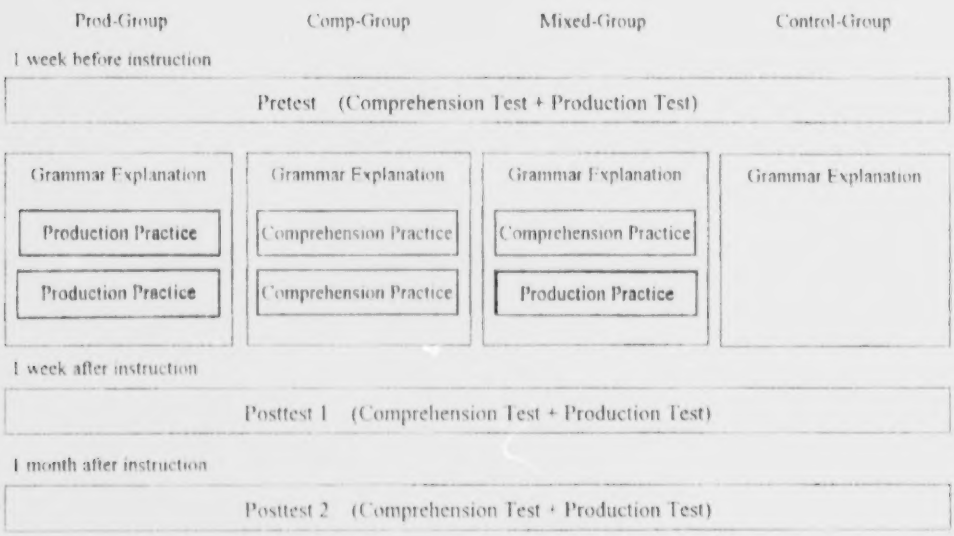
Comprehension Test	*Production Test*
1. Nancy respects Mike.	1. Tom bothers Mary.
2. Mike hates Bob.	2. Tom envies Kate.
3. Mark surprises Kathy.	3. Kathy worries David.
4. David embarrasses Jane.	4. Jane excites Ken.
5. Janet doubts Brian.	5. Brian suspects Kate.
6. Brian scares Akiko.	6. Ken frightens Janet.
7. Mike interests Kate.	7. Kate irritates John.
8. Mary likes Ken.	8. Ken loves Janet.
9. John pleases Emi.	9. Tom misses Kate.
10. Bob disappoints Mary.	10. Jane disgusts David.

For the aural comprehension tests, the subjects listened to tape-recorded sentences and demonstrated their comprehension of each sentence by selecting one of four drawings that best corresponded to the sentence (shown in Appendix 2). Each question took about 15 seconds. The production tests required the subjects to verbally describe a

drawing using terms from the list of English words supplied (shown in Appendix 3). Their utterances were recorded on tape and six seconds were allowed for each recording. This time limit was determined by a preliminary investigation of the instrument using four native speakers of English who took the comprehension and production tests. The mean time spent for each test item was calculated and the native English speakers were also asked to confirm the authenticity of the sentences and drawings. Another unpublished pilot study was conducted using five students who were not included in the current study in order to examine the difficulty of the comprehension and production tests and the appropriateness of the time limits. As a result some test items were modified.

Each of the pretests and posttests was presented using the same vocabulary and drawings but these were arranged in a different order. Cronbach's alpha statistics calculated for the comprehension and production pretests were .69 and .66 respectively. Despite the small number of subjects (n = 65) and test items (10 for each test) in this study, it was felt that the tests were reliable.

Figure 3: Procedure of the Present Study



Grammar Instruction

The three experimental groups (Prod-Group, Comp-Group, and Mixed-Group) received the same grammar instruction consisting of an explanation of the target structure. This was followed by practice. However, the control group received the explanation only. The grammar instruction consisted of the following activities. First the students were given handouts explaining the two types of the psychological verb (i.e., the Fear-type and the Worry-type). The teacher/researcher explained that the experiencer precedes the verb in the Fear-type sentence (e.g., *People like dogs*). Then students read the list of the Fear-type verbs (doubt, love, respect, miss, envy, hate, suspect, like), checking that they understood their meanings. Next the teacher explained that the experiencer followed the verb in the Worry-type sentence (e.g., *People disgust dogs*), and the students read the list of these verbs (embarrass, scare, bother, please, frighten, surprise, interest, disappoint, excite, disgust, worry) again checking their meanings. After the grammar explanation, the three treatment groups were given practice consisting of 40 questions using both types of psychological verbs. This practice was identical in format to the pretest and posttests sentences given in Figure 2 (also see Appendices 2 and 3).

There were two types of practice: comprehension practice and production practice. The members of the Comp-Group were given comprehension practice only. This consisted of listening to 40 audio-taped questions (see Appendices 2 and 3), each of which included a psychological verb. The subjects had to demonstrate their comprehension by selecting one of four drawings best corresponding to the recorded sentence. The members of the Prod-Group were given production practice only. This consisted of 40 drawings which the subjects were required to describe using the vocabulary from the supplied English words. The subjects of the Mixed-Group were given 20 questions from the comprehension practice items and 20 questions from the production practice items. The three groups thus received the same amount of practice, although the Mixed-Group received only half the production practice of the Prod-Group and half of the comprehension practice of the Comp-Group. After each question was completed the correct answers and brief explanations were given to the subjects.

Hypotheses

As in Tanaka's previous study (1999), two hypotheses were proposed:

> Hypothesis 1: The Mixed-Group, which was given only half the amount of comprehension practice as the Comp-Group,

will show gains in the comprehension test scores of posttest 1 equal to or better than Comp-Group, and the Mixed-Group's gains will be sustained in posttest 2.

Hypothesis 2: The Mixed-Group, which was given only half the amount of production practice as the Prod-Group, will show gains in the production test scores of posttest 1 equal to or better than Prod-Group, and the Mixed-Group's gains will be sustained in posttest 2.

Statistical Analyses

The statistical analyses for this study were performed with a commercially available statistical package (*SPSS 10.0* for Windows, 1999). Since testing the homogeneity of variances of the data with the Levene test revealed that the groups being analyzed did not have equal variances, the test scores were then submitted to the Kruskal-Wallis test and the Friedman test. In all cases, there were two variables. One was the group type (four levels: Comp-Group, Prod-Group, Mixed-Group, and Control-Group) in which mean scores being compared were all independent. The other variable was the test type (three levels: pretest, posttest 1, and posttest 2) in which the mean scores were all dependent. In order to examine the two hypotheses above, the scores on the comprehension tests were analyzed using three Kruskal-Wallis tests and four Friedman tests. The Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to test the null hypothesis that there would be no significant differences among the mean scores of the four groups. The Friedman tests were used to test the null hypotheses that there were no significant differences among the mean scores of the three tests. Bonferroni tests were used for post hoc testing. Likewise, the scores on the production tests were subjected to three Kruskal-Wallis tests, four Friedman tests, and then the Bonferroni post hoc test. The significance level was set at .05.

Results

The mean scores and the standard deviations for both comprehension and production tests are presented in Table 2. The results of the comprehension tests and production tests are shown below in Figures 4 and 5 respectively. Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed on the comprehension test scores of pretests and posttests 1 and 2 in order to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences among the means of the four groups. There was no significant difference among the four groups' means on the pretest ($\chi^2 = 2.29$, $df = 3$, $p > .05$), but there were significant differences among means for both

posttests 1 and 2 (respectively, $\chi^2 = 11.65$, $df = 3$, $p < .01$; $\chi^2 = 10.31$, $df = 3$, $p < .05$). Bonferroni post hoc tests (the significance level was set at .0125) revealed that for posttest 1 significant differences were detected for the pairs of Control-Group vs. Prod-Group and Control-Group vs. Comp-Group. For posttest 2, significant differences were reported for the pairs of Control-Group vs. Prod-Group and Control-Group vs. Comp-Group.

Friedman tests were performed on the comprehension test scores of the four groups in order to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences among the means in the three tests. There were significant differences among the three tests' mean scores for Prod-Group, Comp-Group, and Mixed-Group (respectively, $\chi^2 = 15.75$, $df = 2$, $p < .01$; $\chi^2 = 26.84$, $df = 2$, $p < .01$; $\chi^2 = 12.04$, $df = 2$, $p < .01$), but no significant difference for Control-Group ($\chi^2 = 1.91$, $df = 2$, $p > .05$). Bonferroni post hoc tests (the significance level was set at .016) revealed that, for the Prod-Group, significant differences in the means were reported for pretest vs. posttest 1 and pretest vs. posttest 2. For the Comp-Group, there were significant differences in the means for pretest vs. posttest 1 and pretest vs. posttest 2. For the Mixed-Group, there were significant differences in the means for pretest vs. posttest 1 and pretest vs. posttest 2.

Table 2: Means and SD for both Comprehension and Production Tests

	Prod-Group (N=15)		Comp-Group (N=22)		Mixed-Group (N=15)		Control-Group (N=13)	
	M	(*SD*)	*M*	(*SD*)	*M*	(*SD*)	*M*	(*SD*)
Comprehension Test								
Pretest	6.00	(1.41)	5.59	(1.22)	5.33	(1.35)	6.08	(1.38)
Posttest 1	7.83	(1.10)	8.41	(1.40)	7.73	(2.02)	6.46	(1.39)
Posttest 2	8.08	(1.16)	8.36	(1.26)	7.53	(2.10)	6.54	(1.76)
Production Test								
Pretest	5.33	(0.90)	4.59	(1.37)	5.60	(1.68)	5.38	(1.12)
Posttest 1	8.00	(1.31)	6.23	(2.07)	7.73	(1.39)	6.38	(1.39)
Posttest 2	7.79	(1.57)	6.73	(1.80)	8.27	(1.10)	4.69	(1.18)

Comprehension Test

As Figure 4 illustrates, both the Comp-Group and Mixed-Group achieved significant gains on posttest 1 and both groups maintained their scores on posttest 2. The Prod-Group also obtained a significant gain and sustained the gain over time. In contrast, the Control-Group made no gains on posttests 1 and 2. Hypothesis 1 suggested that the Mixed-Group, which was given only half the amount of comprehension practice of

the Comp-Group, should show significant gains on the comprehension test scores of posttest 1 equal to or better than the Comp-Group, and that these gains would be sustained in posttest 2. The results show no significant differences between the comprehension test scores of the Mixed-Group and the Comp-Group for either posttest 1 or 2. Some difference between the comprehension test scores of the two groups existed, as shown in Table 2 (8.41 vs. 7.73 for posttest 1; 8.36 vs. 7.53 for posttest 2), but the similarity of the two groups' scores is meaningful when the small number of subjects in this study is considered (the Comp-Group had 22 subjects and the Mixed-Group had 15 subjects). Thus it can be suggested that the Mixed-Group subjects showed the same type of gains on the comprehension test as the Comp-Group subjects and this positive result was maintained over time. Therefore Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Production Test

Figure 5 illustrates the results of the production test. A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted on the production test scores of pretest and posttests 1 and 2 respectively in order to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences among the means of the four groups. There was no significant difference among the four groups' means on the pretest (χ^2 =6.12, df = 3, $p > .05$), but there were significant differences among the four groups' means on both posttests 1 and 2 (respectively, χ^2 = 12.12, df = 3, $p < .01$; χ^2 = 25.87, df = 3, $p < .01$). Bonferroni post hoc tests (the significance level was set at .0125) revealed that for posttest 1 significant differences in the means were detected for the pairs of Control-Group vs. Prod-Group and for Comp-Group vs. Prod-Group. For posttest 2 significant differences in the means were reported for the pairs of Control-Group vs. Prod-Group, Control-Group vs. Comp-Group, Control-Group vs. Mixed-Group, and Comp-Group vs. Mixed-Group.

Friedman tests were conducted on the production test scores of the four groups in order to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences in the means among the three tests. There were significant differences among the three tests' mean scores for the Control-Group, the Prod-Group, the Comp-Group, and the Mixed-Group (respectively, χ^2= 8.19, df = 2, $p < .05$; χ^2 = 19.0, df = 2, $p < .01$; χ^2 = 15.27, df = 2, $p < .01$; χ^2= 14.28, df = 2, $p < .01$). Bonferroni posthoc tests (the significance level was set at .016) revealed that for the Control-Group, significant differences in the means were reported for posttest 1 vs. posttest 2. For the Prod-Group, significant differences were found

among pretest vs. posttest 1 and pretest vs. posttest 2. For the Comp-Group, significant differences in the means were found for pretest vs. posttest 1 and pretest vs. posttest 2. And for the Mixed-Group, significant differences were found for pretest vs. posttest 1 and pretest vs. posttest 2.

Thus the Prod-Group and Mixed-Group made significant gains on posttest 1 and maintained these gains on posttest 2, whereas the Control-Group did not make significant gains on either posttest. The Comp-Group made a significant gain on posttests 1 and 2, but did not improve to the same degree as the Prod-Group or the Mixed-Group. Hypothesis 2 predicts that the Mixed Group, which was given half the amount of production practice as the Prod-Group, will show significant production gains on posttest 1 equal to or better than the Prod-Group, and that these gains will be sustained on posttest 2. In fact, the results of the study showed no significant difference between the Mixed-Group and the Prod-Group production test scores in either posttest 1 or 2. Thus, the Mixed-Group subjects' production improved to the same degree as that of subjects in the Prod-Group and the gain was sustained over time. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is also confirmed.

Figure 4: Comprehension Pre/Post Test Scores

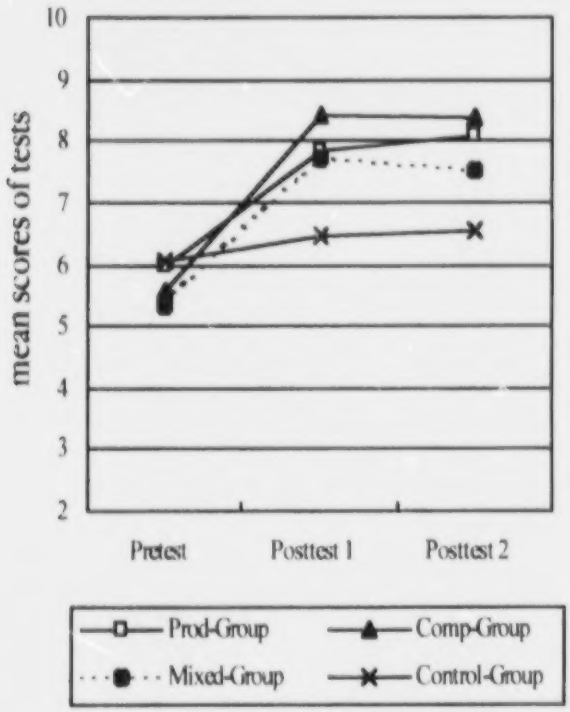
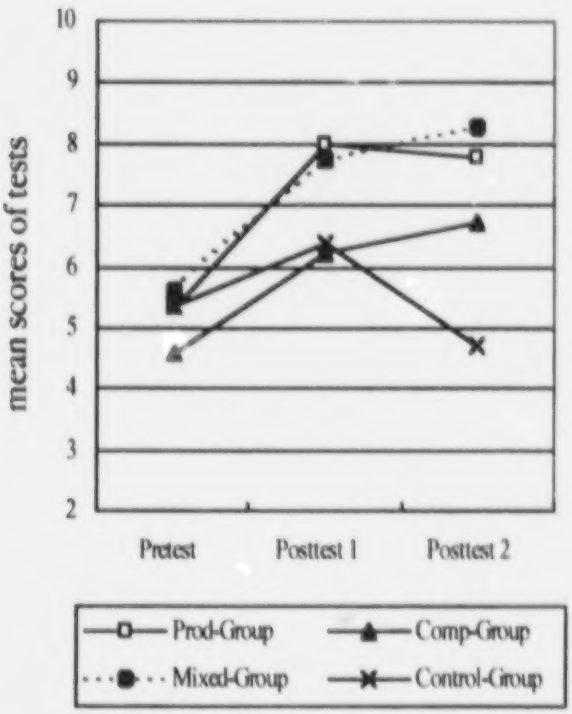


Figure 5: Production Pre/Post Test Scores



Discussion

Positive Effects for Combining Practice Types

The Mixed-Group test scores for both comprehension and production tasks showed gains equal to those of the Comp-Group and the Prod-Group and the practice effects lasted over time in spite of the fact that the Mixed-Group spent only half the amount of the time their counterparts did on each type of practice. One interpretation for this result is that since the Mixed-Group learners experienced both comprehension and production practice, they had an opportunity to integrate the form and function of the structure into their knowledge in different contexts. Comprehension practice required the learners to listen to a sentence containing a psychological verb, identify the verb type and the verb's experiencer, then select a drawing depicting the sentence within

a given time (see Appendix 2). In contrast, production practice asked the learners to recognize the meaning of a drawing, identify the verb type, decide upon the correct word order, and verbally describe a drawing using the given words, including psychological verbs (see Appendix 3). It can be suggested that the grammar instruction on psychological verbs was reinforced through both listening to and vocalizing the structure. It thus appears that the Mixed-Group's comprehension and production practice complemented each other to promote learning of the structure. Meanwhile, the Prod-Group and Comp-Group learners, with only one type of practice, did not show better results even though they spent twice as much time on their particular form of practice as the Mixed-Group learners.

Skill-Specific Improvement

It was also found that the practice effect was skill specific in the sense that the subjects given only comprehension practice improved more on the comprehension tests than the subjects given only production practice and vice versa. This suggests that developing the skill necessary to perform one kind of practice does not guarantee the ability to perform a different kind of practice. Unexpectedly, however, the Prod-Group showed a significant improvement in the comprehension test equal to that of the Comp-Group and Mixed-Group (see Figure 4). This may be due to the fact that production practice was given with the help of words accompanying the drawing (Appendix 3). As explained previously, in an earlier pilot study the subjects had great difficulty producing a verbal description without being provided with words; thus words were included in this study. It can be inferred that the provision of vocabulary items promoted a firmer association of meaning and structure during production practice and thus resulted in significant gains for the Prod-Group on the comprehension test. If this is the case, the current study supports Dekeyser's (1996) and Dekeyser and Sokalski's (1996) findings which indicate that the ability gained from practice may be skill-specific. At the same time, this result contradicts VanPatten and his associates' results suggesting that grammar instruction utilizing production practice does not contribute significantly to comprehension ability. It has been pointed out that VanPatten and his associates' studies require replication using a more controlled experimental design since the subjects performing comprehension practice received more grammar explanation of a qualitatively different nature than those performing production practice (Ellis, 1997; Dekeyser & Sokalski, 1996; Salaberry, 1997).

In contrast, the current study was conducted using an identical grammatical explanation for all groups, enabling a more accurate comparison of the effects of comprehension and production practice. The present results confirm that comprehension practice develops comprehension skills and production practice develops production skills. In short, each practice plays a unique role in grammar learning.

It must be acknowledged, however, that this study has important limitations. One is its generalizability. Due to the limited sample size the findings are only true for the students who participated in the current study. Since the current study investigated practice effects for Japanese junior college EFL students, further studies should examine practice effects for younger students: junior high school EFL students, for example. Another limitation is the nature of the target structure. The current study focused on a specific grammatical structure, psychological verbs. This structure includes syntactic features, so configuring the order of words and phrases is crucial to comprehending or producing a sentence. Thus the present results may be limited to the acquisition of grammatical structures with this kind of syntactic feature. Further investigations using diverse structures are necessary.

Conclusion

As mentioned, other researchers (de Bot, 1996; Dekeyser, 1996; McLaughlin, et al., 1983; Swain, 1995; Terrell, 1991) have suggested that practice in grammar instruction plays a significant role in promoting the automatization of learned grammatical information and the construction of grammar knowledge. Comprehension practice can help learners to notice a target structure, compare it with their existing knowledge, and integrate it into that knowledge. Production practice can also help learners notice the target structure while reconfirming its use and providing additional input via the learners' own output. Thus, the two forms of practice can interact in a synergistic relationship, each shaping and being shaped by the other.

In EFL classroom situations such as those in Japan, creating optimal learning conditions becomes an important issue. The key lies in teachers fully understanding the relationship between practice and second language acquisition. Most current textbooks and materials, however, seem to have been developed without a full understanding of recent findings in second language acquisition. Therefore they lack a balance of practice activities (see Ellis, 1995). Decio (1996) examined grammar practice as presented in ESL/EFL textbooks from 1960 to 1996, pointing out that it was not contemporary with proposed language

instruction approaches and suggesting that there has been little advancement in grammar practice strategies provided to the classroom practitioner. As mentioned, past studies of grammar learning (e.g., Ellis, 1995; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993) tended to treat comprehension and production practice as playing conflicting roles. However, the present study suggests that combining practice types may promote better learning than their use separately. The results of this and the previous study (Tanaka, 1999) support the claim that combining comprehension and production practice can increase not only immediate comprehension and production abilities, but also may promote durability. Although limited, these results also support Dekeyser's suggestion (Dekeyser, 1996; Dekeyser & Sokalski, 1996) that practice effects may be skill specific in the sense that learners who practice a target structure through comprehension practice and subsequently take a comprehension test will outperform those who practice the same structure through production practice, and vice versa.

Therefore it is suggested that design and organization of practice activities should incorporate both types of practice. Combining practice can provide a stepping stone to success in second language acquisition.

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Appendix 1

Listening Test for the General English Aural Proficiency Test

1. What letter is G after in the alphabet? Write the letter.
2. Tom, Bill, and Jack are all common names for what? Begin the word with a "B" and write the plural form.
3. What do you call a person who gives medical treatment to sick people? Begin with a "D."
4. If you mixed blue and yellow paint together, what color would you get? Write the word beginning with the letter "G."
5. How many ears does a dog have? Write the number.
6. We usually have three meals a day. What do you call the meal we have at noon? A five-letter word.

7. It is 10:30 now. What time will it be in 30 minutes? Write the number.
8. What do you call a funny story that is told to make people laugh? Begin with a "J."
9. What kind of fruit is the one most often used in making wine? Begin with a "G" and write the plural form.
10. If your camera is empty, you will not be able to take any pictures. What do you need to put in your camera? Begin with an "F."
11. Water usually boils at what degree centigrade? Write the number only.
12. "Daddy" is a child's word for father. How many D's does this word have?

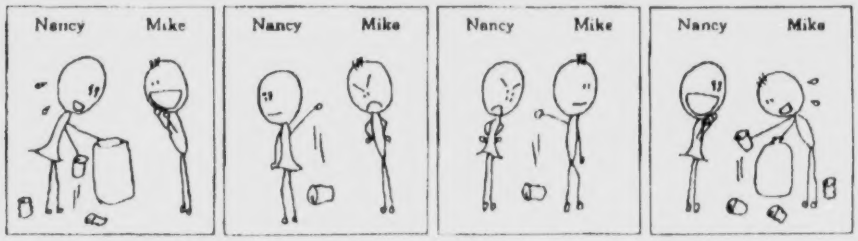
Appendix 2

Sample Comprehension Test Items (Similar to Practice Items)

Listen to the following sentence and select the drawing that best corresponds to the sentence. Make sure each sentence is played only once.

Appendix 2

Example of Comprehension Test (The practice used in this study resembles these.)



Nancy respects Mike. Answer: (d)

Appendix 3

Sample Production Test Items (Similar to Practice Items)

Describe the drawing below, using the three words given. You cannot use passives or progressives. Be sure to speak into the microphone.

Appendix 3
Example of Production Test (The practice used in this study resembles these.)

Answer: Tom bothers Mary.

Professional Development and the JET Program: Insights and Solutions Based on the Sendai City Program

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This paper examines the role professional development can play for Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) and native speaker Assistant English Teachers (AETs) working together in the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program. Aiming for a communicatively-based team-taught approach, the program has been in existence in Japanese high schools since 1987. Japanese government documents, academic reports, and participants' reflections have been examined to reveal some of the program's shortfalls. A detailed description of Sendai City's training and in-service system is offered as a way to maximize the success of the JET Program through consistent professional support for JTEs and AETs.

JET（Japan Exchange and Teaching）プログラムは1987年に開始され、日本人英語教員（JET）と英語を母語とする教員（AET）が共同してコミュニケーション活動中心のティーム・ティーチングを実施しているが、本論では、教員研修がJETプログラムの成否のために、いかなる役割を果たすかについて考察する。政府刊行物、学術論文、プログラム参加者の反応を調査した結果、JETプログラムについて、いくつかの問題点が明らかになった。JETとAETへ継続した支援を行い、JETプログラムにおいて、大きな成果を得るための方法として、仙台市の教員研修マニュアルを取り上げて考察する。

The JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) Program commenced in Japan in 1987, bringing 813 native speakers of English to team teach with Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs). The program is managed by the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR), an organization created by the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (Monbusho), the Ministry of Home Affairs, and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. CLAIR recruits foreign Coordinators for International Relations (CIRs), Sports Exchange Advisors (SEAs), and Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) who are then employed throughout Japan. Assistant English Teachers (AETs) are a subset of the ALT group, comprising 90% of CLAIR's annual participants (Council of Local Authorities for International Relations [CLAIR], 2000, p. 7). These AETs are placed in educational centers around Japan to provide native speaker input into English classes at junior and senior high

schools. At present, ten participating countries (Australia, Canada, Ireland, Israel, Jamaica, New Zealand, Singapore, South Africa, the United Kingdom and the United States) are the source of AETs, with just under 5,500 AETs working throughout Japan in the 2000-2001 school year (CLAIR, 2000, p. 7).

The program was initiated with the specific aim of helping to internationalize Japanese students through classroom activities and to build the English language skills of both students and JTEs (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture [Monbusho], 1994, p. 6). In particular, the Monbusho wanted teachers of English to shift from the grammar-translation approaches popular in Japanese schools to a more communicative-based methodology, with the AETs' native-speaker abilities being utilized to achieve this aim. This resolve has been further strengthened with the current Monbusho Course of Study (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1994, p. 98-115), which directs English to be taught in a far more communicative style than ever before. This has placed pressure on JTEs to make appropriate changes to their methodology and to enlist the support of the AETs within the school system.

These innovations have challenged all those involved. Rather than operating as instructors working in isolation in the classroom, JTEs have found themselves having to change their teaching practices, putting the language they teach into everyday use in negotiation with the AETs, and approaching English in different ways for the benefit of their students. While these changes were part of the Monbusho's overall strategy to improve the teaching and language skills of JTEs (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1994, p. 6), the presence of English native speakers in their classrooms has caused many JTEs to be concerned about their roles and competence as teachers, with tensions and pressures emerging between the two groups (Goldberg, 1995, p. 11).

These problems may be due to the fact that the JET Program was introduced with only a minimum of preparation for both JTEs and AETs. At the outset, many AETs found themselves placed at schools or with boards of education where the teachers and administrative staff were unaware of ways in which to effectively utilize the newly-arrived assistants (Egginton, 1997). In numerous cases, AETs found themselves sitting in staff rooms without work to do, perhaps brought into the occasional class to read out list of words in the role of "human tape recorder" (Egginton, 1997).

However, as the JET Program has developed, changes have taken place in an attempt to meet the needs of JTEs and AETs. More assis-

tance and support is now available to them, especially in the form of seminars, workshops and conferences (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1994, pp. 10-13). For JTEs and AETs, these regularly scheduled offerings explore areas such as insights into teaching methods and techniques, presentations of collective classroom experiences and ideas, and discussions on the value of team teaching.

With the JET Program entering its fourteenth year, AETs have become recognized staff members of many schools and boards of education. In general, there has been a growing acceptance of English native speakers in the school system, and JTEs are more likely to enlist the aid of the AET in their classes than when the program and the concept of team teaching were in their initial stages (Pattimore & Kobayashi, 1999; Egginton, 1997, p. 315). Additionally, AETs and JTEs have begun to develop a better grasp of the practicalities of team teaching. Their attendance at conferences and workshops and their combined experiences in the program have meant that there is now a far larger collection of data on the English language team teaching experience at Japanese public schools that can be drawn upon.

Still, this does not mean that the process of integrating native speaker AETs into the teaching practice of the majority of JTEs has been accomplished flawlessly. Many AETs still privately express the same concerns and frustrations about their position and the effectiveness of their team teaching partners as was the case in the late 1980s. In addition, while training and support is offered, it does not always meet the range and depth required to optimize English teaching and the JTE-AET professional relationship. This paper sets out to show that more professional development needs to be offered to these teachers to achieve the goals set by the Monbusho.

Difficulties of Implementation

Lack of Training

JTEs

In terms of pre-service education, JTEs receive scant training in TESL skills (Lamie, 2000; Yonesaka, 1999; Browne & Wada, 1998; LoCastro, 1996, p. 42, Gillis-Furutaka, 1994, pp. 35-38). For the vast majority of prospective English teachers in Japan, there are no special courses on the various approaches to teaching, and for the few who do learn about such techniques, there is little chance to see them in practice, or put them into effect during the two weeks they spend in doing practice teaching (Lamie, 2000; Yonesaka, 1999; Browne and Wada, 1998). This

limited training does not touch on the subject of team teaching with a native speaker of English even though most JTEs will have access to AETs in their new schools. Yonesaka states that at Japanese universities "the required coursework [of prospective JTEs] is under constant revision" (1999, p. 9), but these revisions appear to be addressing topics other than English teaching (1999, p. 9). Therefore, many graduating JTEs are not prepared for the demands of team teaching or communicative language teaching as encouraged by the Monbusho.

After placement at schools JTEs receive minimal in-service opportunities but are expected to keep up to date with new teaching approaches and meet the guidelines set down by the Monbusho. Lamie (1999, p. 65) notes that a major overseas program for JTEs has had fewer than 100 trainees in the past ten years, and suggests the need for more extensive in-service training opportunities both in and outside of Japan. In her opinion, professional development sessions "are necessary to change teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and classroom practice, and to enable them to deliver the revised curriculum effectively" (Lamie, 1999, p. 64). Fanselow (1994) encourages a kind of "reverse-JET Program" to alter the current system of teaching English in Japan which would involve sending "at least 10% of JTEs to English-speaking countries each year for professional preparation and English study" (1994, p. 214). Although not as zealous as Fanselow, Smith (1994) fully encourages extensive support in information and assistance regarding team teaching and TESL methodology through in-service training programs for both JTEs and AETs (p. 88).

However, there seems to be some reluctance by the Monbusho to extend in-service training opportunities. In response to the call for the JTEs' training to be "further emphasized and improved" (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1999, p. 3), the Monbusho responded that the pool of 60,000 JTEs across Japan was too large to manage. Instead the Monbusho suggested that the JTEs should take advantage of existing seminars and workshops, taking it upon themselves to form self-help groups and draw on published materials (p. 3). The Monbusho's solution seems to leave the majority of the decisions regarding in-service training to the local governments and to administrators and individuals at the school level.

However, it is clear that further development needs to occur to help the JTEs move towards the communicative style of teaching that the Monbusho wishes to see used in the EFL classroom. At the least, it is clear that most JTEs require more systematic preparation and a forum to explore ways in which to produce junior and senior high school students who are competent communicators in English. The only way this will occur is with extended exposure to different teaching ap-

proaches and an opportunity to learn and practice such techniques.

AETs

When recruited, AETs must meet certain requirements regarding their country of origin, language ability and age (CLAIR, 1999, pp. 16-17), but they need not have a background in teaching or education. In fact it has been suggested that people without experience are preferred (Goldberg, 1995) and the Monbusho has abandoned programs in which trained teachers were brought to Japan (e.g., the Monbusho English Fellows and British English Teachers schemes) in favor of the current system (Ministry of Education, Science Sports and Culture, 1994, p. 7). While some training is offered to participants in the JET Program, the Monbusho actually states that the process of planning, delivering, and assessing the classes will provide development opportunities for both JTEs and AETs (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1994, p. 17). However this view assumes that both parties will have the ability to start and maintain this process with a minimum of official guidance.

Outside the Monbusho these deficiencies have been recognized, and calls have been made for AETs to have stronger pedagogical foundations. Wada and Cominos (1994, pp. 4-5) discuss this in detail, as do Gillis-Furutaka (1994, p. 39-41) and Fanselow (1994, p. 214), all suggesting the need for experienced or qualified AETs. However, CLAIR and the Monbusho appear to be resolute in their choice of hiring untrained individuals for the JET Program, to whom they offer rudimentary grounding in teaching methodology and team teaching strategies after they arrive in Japan (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1994, pp. 10-13).

AETs also see the advantage of in-service training throughout their time in the program. Freeman (1997, p. 318) writes that the JET Program is challenged by "the fact that most ALTs have little or no teacher training," and while stating that "ALTs do not need to be teacher trained," she goes on to write that "they need to be given the tools and the know-how to be effective in second language, team taught classes" (1997, p. 318). Although conferences are provided for both AETs and JTEs, most of the sessions involve the participants sharing their experience and knowledge. While it cannot be denied that the sharing aspect of these conferences is valuable, many sessions are merely a repetition of previously imparted knowledge (Gillis-Furutaka, 1994, p. 33) and some AETs desire input by trained professionals (Luoni, 1997, p. 318).

Nevertheless most AETs realize that training is only part of the issue. Although they feel they are sometimes "still used as human tape

recorders or baby sitters with entertaining games" (Egginton, 1997, p. 315), or are simply ignored at their workplaces, they realize that their co-teachers require training:

> [O]ne way to overcome many of the hesitations of the Japanese English teachers is to provide more programs locally as well as internationally and expose them to other forms of teaching. Although the JET Program is attempting this, it is not enough (Kinjo, 1997, p. 309).

AETs, therefore, see the benefit of Japanese teachers receiving a chance to acquire a greater understanding of the variety of teaching approaches that can be employed. In turn, they realize that, as AETs, they will be put to better use if the JTEs have a greater understanding of teaching methodologies.

In short, the success of team teaching in the JET Program will be enhanced by professional development and training and professional academic support for both JTEs and AETs. Although it is not suggested that the JET Program will fail without these foundations, denying this assistance seems likely to result in the program being less effective, and perhaps never revealing its actual potential to the participants in the teaching web—JTEs, AETs, students, school administration, families of the students, and Japanese society as a whole.

Institutional Conflicts

A number of writers have also questioned the apparently conflicting signals the Monbusho is sending out to teachers. Gorsuch (1999) argues that while the Monbusho stresses the need for a more communicative classroom, the textbooks that are authorized do not make allowances for compatible approaches, a claim also found in Browne and Wada (1998) and Knight (1995). In their survey Browne and Wada (1998) found that many JTEs indicated that the main expectation regarding their instruction was "to teach the contents of the textbook" (p. 105). As a result, in order to achieve the Monbusho's expectations as stated in their guidelines (Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, 1994, pp. 98-115), JTEs and AETs have to spend considerable time adapting texts and creating materials and activities. It could be expected that teachers would see this mismatch as a conflict in goals.

Similar concerns extend to testing, where the Monbusho also seems to be sending mixed messages to JTEs and AETs. Murphey (1999) notes that "[The] Monbusho tells high school teachers to teach oral communication, and yet their entrance exams do not reflect this change. Teach-

ers are caught in the midst of confusing messages" (p. 39). The Monbusho's guidelines express a need for communication in the classroom, but Japanese high school and university examinations test a very different area of language. Murphey claims the Monbusho is using "the rhetoric of values without acting upon them," which may lead to teachers engaging in "schizophrenic activities" (p. 39). Browne and Wada (1998) found that a major pressure on the teaching styles of JTEs was "to prepare students for the entrance examination" (p. 104), which suggests that teachers are more likely to teach towards the content of the exam rather than endanger the success of the students by focusing on communicative approaches. One could argue that it is possible for the content of entrance examinations to be addressed through the use of communicative approaches in the classroom (see Law, 1994), but it is to be expected that most teachers will continue to draw on traditional teaching methods to ensure that their students pass the exams.

It is not suggested here that the Monbusho is consciously working against the success of its communicative goals, but these incongruities imply that an overall policy to link the stated aims and the practical aspects of teaching is not yet in place. It is perhaps this lack of an overall policy that best explains why the present training and in-service training for JTEs does not incorporate communicative approaches and team teaching.

Sendai's Program

In Sendai City, the capital of Japan's northern Tohoku region, a plan has emerged to address some of the problems associated with the shortcomings of the existing program. Progress is being made in offering substantial support and training opportunities to the AETs and JTEs employed by the Sendai Board of Education.

Sendai is an "officially designated" city (i.e., one operating independently of the provincial government) with a population of just over one million. The city Board of Education administers 70 public junior and senior high schools with more than 35,000 students and 2,250 academic staff, of whom 260 are JTEs. The schools range in size from a semi-rural junior high school with just 18 students and 13 teachers to an inner-suburban junior high school with 50 educators and an enrolment of over 950.

The city has an exceptionally proactive attitude towards the JET Program and English education within its schools. Starting with just one AET in 1988, Sendai has since achieved its goal established in 1996 of providing each high school with a full time native English speaker. In the same year the city established the International Education Group

(IEG) within the Board of Education's Guidance and Supervisory Division (*Shidouka*) with the aim of assisting the local AETs. The IEG initially consisted of two Japanese teacher counselors along with an AET advisor (a former AET concerned with the AETs' salaries, housing, health, and general well-being). Later in 1996 a qualified TESOL professional was recruited as Chief Advisor to conduct lectures, seminars, and workshops for all teachers and to mentor AETs. Currently, the IEG has four members.

While Sendai receives the majority of its AETs directly from CLAIR, the city also has its own private hiring system, the "Hello World Plan." Under this scheme, Sendai is able to recruit a minimum of 10 AETs per year to make up for any shortfall of teachers supplied by CLAIR. The salary, working conditions, and general benefits provided to successful applicants match those of the JET Program, and in regards to training, meetings, support, and access to teaching materials, these recruits are treated the same as the JET Program AETs. This system thus allows Sendai to partially regulate the quality and standards of AETs working for the Board of Education.

Benefits for AETs

After arrival in Sendai, new AETs receive a full week's orientation providing them with an overview of ESL/EFL techniques along with cultural and survival tips for working and living in Japan. In addition to the IEG staff, currently employed AETs participate in the orientation, contributing their insights and experiences. The new AETs are issued teaching materials and Sendai-produced handbooks and are invited to attend the twice-monthly seminars held at the local Education Center.

As stated earlier, AETs in the JET Program usually do not have prior teacher training or teaching experience. Consequently, providing the opportunity for them to learn about teaching is imperative in making their experience in the program successful. Surveys by Scholefield (1996) and Pattimore and Kobayashi (1999) have shown that most JTEs desire greater training for the AETs they work with, and Sendai's professional development program works towards satisfying some of these needs. In addition, the training the AETs receive also has an impact on their JTE team members since the results of their training can be witnessed by and drawn upon by the JTEs. Although not as effective as having the JTEs themselves attend the training, this "osmotic" effect the JTEs receive may be valuable to them. In fact, many Sendai AETs have noted that their JTEs have expressed interest in the content of seminars by asking for teaching ideas and suggestions presented in the workshops.

It is also felt that the AETs receive an extra incentive by being members of an education program that fosters development in its employees. The hope is that, by treating AETs as professionals and providing opportunities for their training, a higher teaching standard will be engendered. This demonstrates that the Sendai Board of Education is supportive of the AETs in wishing to enhance their teaching skills. It is also hoped that Sendai's approach will instill a sense of obligation and professional pride in the JET Program participants, even if they do not intend to stay beyond their initial 12 month contract or have no further plans for teaching.

Professional Development for AETs and JTEs

The Chief Advisor is responsible for designing and conducting Sendai's in-service seminars, which are open to both JTEs and AETs. These two-hour sessions usually take place on weekday afternoons in the city's Education Center. Usually classes are limited to 30 people but when there is demand for particular sessions extra seminars are provided. These classes cover a range of topics such as the history of ELT methodologies and techniques, using music as a teaching tool, and developing professional relationships. The sessions are delivered in English adjusted in consideration of the JTEs' English ability and level of teaching skills.

The materials used in the classes are also selected in consideration of the language level of the JTEs. Extracts from *Teach English* (Doff, 1988), a text designed for non-native speakers of English, are frequently used and other teacher training texts are summarized and simplified where necessary. Longer and more complex extracts are sent to JTEs in advance and there are extra handouts for those attending the sessions to take home. There are also many opportunities for JTEs to develop their English communication skills through discussions, planning, and other activities held with the participating AETs. Thus, the seminars offer a chance for AETs and JTEs to develop their knowledge of teaching theory and practice as well as assisting the development of JTEs' English language proficiency.

Professional development is also enhanced by the IEG through school visits. While these occasions can be stressful for those being observed, a concerted effort has been made to make these experiences less of a traditional "inspection" and more of a learning experience for the teachers concerned. School visits are a regular part of the Guidance and Supervisory Division's duties, but the Sendai IEG has promoted a change in attitude towards these visits. Observation of classes now occurs throughout the year, with the timing of visits set through negotiations

between the IEG, AETs, JTEs, and the school administration. The visits usually take place at the request of AETs and JTEs who see the value of having a class critiqued. Rather than being a "policing" activity, the observations are presented as a way to develop teaching skills. In a number of cases, JTEs who were observed (but who had not previously attended the city-run seminars offered) decided that participation in workshops would contribute to their abilities as teachers and have begun attending on a regular basis. In addition AETs have noted changes in their partners' approaches after these observations.

Sendai's Problems

Even with such a substantial program in place, there are still problems in the system. The first Chief Advisor was appointed primarily to develop the AETs' teaching knowledge and skills. However it was subsequently realized that, no matter how well the AETs were trained, substantial improvements in the quality of team teaching could not occur until local JTEs were fully involved in the process. Thus the twice-monthly seminars that are conducted by the current Chief Advisor are now chiefly aimed at the JTEs, with AETs brought in as assistants.

However, attracting JTEs to the seminars has been a major challenge. At most seminars no more than 10 out of a possible 260 JTEs are present, and some of the reasons behind this low attendance shall be explored here. First, many teachers are highly committed to their jobs. A Japanese junior high school teacher's official working hours are usually between 8:15 a.m. and 5:00 p.m., Monday to Friday, with a half day on every second Saturday. However, the majority of teachers are also involved in other duties, such as coaching sporting teams, running school clubs, and counseling students, which keep them at the school as late as 10:00 p.m. School vacations also see many teachers running club and sporting activities on the school premises.

Considering these pressures, finding time to go to seminars which start at 3:00 p.m. on weekday afternoons is often difficult for teachers. While the availability of in-service training for JTEs is not innovative, the concept of a Japanese Board of Education offering a regularly scheduled optional in-service training program is relatively new. The elective nature of this training program means that teachers have to seek permission from their school's administration to attend. However, a teacher choosing to leave school and attend an in-service session may be viewed as an avoidance of responsibility, a perception that a teacher would not wish to give to other staff members. It can therefore be awkward for teachers to absent themselves from the workplace, even for a teaching development seminar, when other members of the staff

are still at work.

An additional factor in the poor attendance of JTEs may be the attitude of senior teachers and administrators. Even though the Monbusho is supportive of teacher development, senior elements within schools may not always be highly in favor of the JET Program, and may not encourage the growth of their staff's teaching skills or developments in the JTE/AET teaching relationship. In fact some individuals are concerned that JTEs are already in a special position since they have AETs to work with them in and outside of class and have a greater opportunity for educational advancement through seminars. The acceptance of in-service training programs is slowly changing, but, as LoCastro (1996, p. 43) states, "individuals find resistance at their places of employment to their participation in outside in-service training activities." Even though the training provided by the Sendai IEG can be considered "outside" the programs listed by LoCastro (p. 42) (e.g., sessions conducted by JALT, the British Council, and publishers), since Sendai's teacher development is still elective, there is a degree of resistance similar to that described by LoCastro.

Yet another cause of low attendance could possibly be the JTEs' concerns about their level of English. Evaluations by JTEs after the local annual MidYear Block conferences (organized by the local prefectural Board of Education) usually find the respondents commenting on their difficulty in following the English presentations given by AETs. Sendai's seminars are conducted in English and, although consideration is given to the JTEs' proficiency during the preparation and delivery of the sessions, informal feedback has indicated that the topics covered sometimes require language skills beyond their capability. Therefore, even though they are teachers of English, a number of JTEs have indicated their hesitation to attend sessions covering technical aspects of teaching.

JTEs could also be intimidated by the English speaking skill of the AETs who attend the sessions. The AETs enjoy participating in the seminars but they sometimes forget the language abilities of the JTEs, and start discussing issues in a manner akin to that in Western higher education classrooms. Their enthusiasm is very engaging but a number of Sendai JTEs who have taken part in seminars have admitted their hesitation in attending subsequent sessions because of the speed and complexity of English that the AETs sometimes use when making comments.

For other JTEs, negative experiences at previous in-service training sessions may have colored their views about professional development. Results compiled by Browne and Wada (1998) suggest that JTEs often

feel that mandatory training is not of a particularly high quality. It is possible that some teachers may transfer this perception to other sessions offered by a Board of Education. They may be under the impression that the seminars offered are irrelevant or not interesting.

Finally, there are also some JTEs who have no interest in improving either their English or teaching skills. Many individuals are in English teaching positions to which they have grown accustomed, and for many there is no incentive to go beyond what they are doing at present. They feel that they can continue to teach English successfully without having to attend seminars and workshops. It has been noted earlier that Monbusho-approved materials and tests based on these materials do not thoroughly test the communicative skills of the students (Gorsuch, 1999; Murphey, 1999). As a result, JTEs may feel that enhancing their skills or initiating new approaches would not prove any more rewarding for their students than the methods they currently employ.

Solutions

In general, there needs to be greater support and encouragement for in-service training for both JTEs and AETs in Japan. This support must come from all levels, from the Monbusho down to the schools themselves. As mentioned earlier, the calls for more in-service training have come from a variety of sources, but the Monbusho response to date has been less than encouraging. The lack of any initiative or innovation with regards to these matters would seem to indicate that the Monbusho may believe that improvement will occur without the introduction of any further system of training and professional development.

One way to encourage self-development in JTEs would be to offer more seminars to help their communicative English skills. Improved language skills would have an impact on their knowledge of and confidence in using English, similar to Li's finding (1998) regarding local teachers of English in his study of communicative language teaching in South Korea. Not only would improved English language skills give JTEs greater access to and understanding of English teaching materials and resources, but this development would also promote the professional and personal relationships that the JTEs have with their AETs. However, English language classes would most likely have the same attendance problems as the in-service training program.

Another issue concerns the cultural suitability of what is being required from the JTEs, their students and Japan's educational system. In setting its sights on communicative approaches, the Monbusho is supporting a methodology that may not be suitable for the teaching cul-

ture of Japan. Pennycook (1994) writes of the inappropriateness of communicative language teaching in a number of educational and cultural contexts (pp. 170-173), and such may be the case in Japan as well. Since the Monbusho is unlikely to reconsider its decision concerning the use of communicative approaches, providing avenues for in-service training can open JTEs' minds to methods that can complement the cultural background they share with their students. However, without a forum for dialogue, movements towards more culturally appropriate approaches may not occur and this may restrict advances in English teaching development.

Opportunities for discussion will perhaps draw on and further develop Japanese experts in the area of language teaching. Encouraging JTEs to enhance their skills through professional development may encourage them to become authorities in their own right or at least reassure them that their experience is valuable. It is suggested that the JTEs will have a significant role in influencing and changing the existing educational infrastructure, something which Gillis-Furutaka (1994, pp. 33, 40) echoes.

One change which has occurred in Sendai has been the offering of seminars designed for JTEs only. These are delivered in English, and it is possible that the absence of AETs has led to more JTEs attending. However, although there has been some interest, with slightly over 10 JTEs present on each occasion, the attendance rates have not dramatically increased. A further step would be to conduct these sessions in Japanese. This has not occurred as yet, although during the JTE-only seminars there is Japanese language support from one of the Japanese teachers' counselors from the IEG.

Another plan under consideration is to offer seminars at times when JTEs might better be able to attend. One possibility is to conduct seminars after school finishes, perhaps at 7 p.m. in the centrally-located Board of Education offices. Further options are to conduct intensive weekend sessions or intensive, multiple day workshops at times when schools are closed. However, as times at which schools are completely free of students in Japan are not frequent, scheduling such sessions will be complicated.

Requests have been made by JTEs for the IEG to ask school principals to require teachers to attend the seminars. This would mean that attendance would not be a matter of choice for the JTEs, thus removing any stigma associated with leaving school early. Still, such a process may result in uninterested JTEs being forced to attend the seminars, and this may have adverse effects on the atmosphere in the workshops. Browne and Wada (1998) explored this issue through a survey

conducted with teachers in Chiba prefecture and found that negative attitudes towards official seminars were possibly due to their mandatory nature (1998, p. 105). Therefore a system where the school administration requires seminar attendance may result in resistance to the program.

It is hoped that more feedback from the JTEs will be collected to clarify these issues. Suggestions and responses are often requested from teachers in Sendai but their reactions are not always forthcoming. As a result it is difficult to assess what changes the JTEs would like to see in the current program. A more active investigation of their ideas is required to thoroughly discover what format they would like professional development to take.

Conclusions

After 13 years the JET Program and its emphasis on team teaching continues to be supported and expanded by the Japanese government. Approval for the program comes from JTE participants themselves. Pattimore and Kobayashi (1999) reported that most of the JTEs surveyed in Ibaraki prefecture strongly defended the program, and exploratory unpublished research in Sendai by this author found many JTEs expressed similar rates of approval for the AET system and team teaching. However to justify the JET Program's existence and the vast expenditure of time, money and resources, educational authorities need to go beyond the present training and in-service training for JTEs and AETs. Concerns about English teaching in Japanese schools are constantly being raised, with the English-language press in Japan regularly detailing government and academic reports concerning this issue. A recent report stated that an advisory panel will be set up by the Monbusho "to discuss specific measures for the overhaul of English-teaching at schools and universities" ("Ministry set to review English teaching," 1999). The Education Minister "decided to set up the advisory panel to overhaul current teaching practices, in the belief that they are to blame for the lack of English-speaking proficiency." It was also stated that there would be a call for "new entrance examinations to be set up by high schools and universities, focusing mainly on students' ability to communicate in English." Although it is reassuring that concerns are being expressed about some of the matters raised in this paper, it would be more gratifying to see some of these issues dealt with in a practical manner rather than simply being studied, discussed, and reported upon.

It is this writer's hope that there will be national support to put these changes into place. This support could be made manifest in the form

of adequate teacher training and compulsory professional development. For English teaching and the JET Program to blossom into a truly effective system that offers Japanese students superior English education, further infrastructure needs to be introduced to streamline the working processes for the AETs and JTEs. While Sendai's program is not without its problems, it does provide a model for the Monbusho and other Boards of Education to consider.

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Language Learning Motivation of EFL Learners in Japan—A Cross-Sectional Analysis of Various Learning Milieus

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This study explores the types of language learning motivation possessed by Japanese EFL learners from diverse learning milieus. Research on L2 motivation has long been conducted within the paradigm of social psychology. However, the revival of interest in L2 motivation in the 1990s shows a clear shift to an educational focus in which L2 learners' cognitive and affective characteristics and classroom considerations have become major areas of concern. Following this trend, the present study employed a 50-item motivational questionnaire based on several motivational components from educational and social psychology. The questionnaire was administered to 1,027 participants from various learning contexts. Exploratory factor analysis confirmed six motivational factors and the follow-up multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) indicated that some factors are characteristic of certain language learning milieus, while others are common to all situations. The results are discussed in terms of the motivational characteristics of EFL learners in Japan.

本研究の目的は、多様な学習環境を背景とした日本人英語学習者の動機づけの動向を探ることである。これまで外国語学習の動機づけ研究は、社会心理学の枠組みからのアプローチが主流であった。しかし、９０年代に入ってから、外国語学習の動機づけ研究には教育面への効果を視野に入れたアプローチが盛んに取られるようになった。本研究では、社会心理学的および教育心理学的動機づけ理論を背景とした５０項目から成る質問紙を作成し、様々な学習環境で英語を学習する１０２７名の被験者を対象として実施した。因子分析とそれに続く多変量分散分析の結果、本被験者に固有の６つの動機付け因子が抽出され、被験者の性差、専攻・学校によってこれらの因子に差異が確認された。これらの結果を基に、本論では日本人英語学習者の動機の特徴について考察する。

Most language teachers believe that motivation is a key factor for success in language learning. During the last 40 years researchers in various fields have attempted to explore the construct of language learning motivation from many different perspectives. In spite of the number of studies, however, there has been little discussion about what language learning motivation actually *is*. Dörnyei (1998) notes:

> Motivation theories in general seek to explain no less than the fundamental question why humans behave as they do, and therefore it would be naive to assume any simple straightforward answer; indeed, every different psychological perspective on human behavior is associated with a different theory of motivation and, thus, in general psychology it is not the lack but rather the abundance of motivation theories which confuses the scene (pp. 117-118).

Since L2 motivation is a multifaceted construct (Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 1998), it is inappropriate for us to seek one theory to explain all aspects of motivation. The term "motivation" is a broad concept that cannot easily be defined. Furthermore researchers often discuss the concept of motivation, whether it is affective, cognitive, behavioral or otherwise, without specifying what kind of motivation they are investigating (Dörnyei, 1998). Thus it is difficult to compare research results across different backgrounds and perspectives.

However it is also true that different theories enable us to look at different aspects of motivation. Therefore, when conducting research and analyzing the data, the particular aspect of motivation addressed needs to be clearly specified. Dörnyei warns that "in the analysis of motivational research, researchers need to be explicit about which aspects of motivation they are focusing on and how those are related to other, uncovered dimensions of the motivational complex" (1999, p. 527).

Language Learning Motivation Research

Gardner and Lambert's early study (1959) indicated that second language achievement is related not only to language aptitude but also to motivation. Their research subjects were English-speaking students in the predominantly French-speaking city of Montreal, Canada. In a subsequent study Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that language learning motivation can be divided into two types; *integrative motivation*, defined as the desire to integrate oneself with the target culture,

and *instrumental motivation*, defined as the desire to learn a language for a specific purpose, such as employment. The importance of integrative motivation in second/foreign language learning has received worldwide attention and has become a primary focus of research (Gardner, 1988; Giles & Byrne, 1982; Schumann, 1978, 1986). However many researchers have tried to analyze language learning motivation without considering the different social contexts in which it occurs. For example some researchers have found instrumental motivation to be a major factor in research conducted in the social contexts of the Philippines, India, and Japan (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lukmani, 1972; Chihara & Oller, 1978).

Towards the end of the 1980s and into the early 1990s the research focus turned to the differences between ESL learners (those living within the target language culture) and EFL learners (those studying the target language within their own culture) (Au, 1988; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990). For example Dörnyei (1990) suggested that in EFL contexts, where learners have not had sufficient experience of the target language community, motivational factors such as instrumental motivation should receive special attention. Oxford (1996) also considered that EFL environments differ from the ESL situation and recommended that instrumental motivation be a main focus for research in EFL contexts.

Throughout the 1990s research on language learning motivation incorporated concepts from psychology and organizational research, fields with substantial bodies of motivation research. Deci and Ryan (1985) classified motivation into *intrinsic motivation*, the desire to engage in activities in anticipation of internally rewarding consequences such as feelings of competence and self-determination, and *extrinsic motivation*, the desire to engage in activities in anticipation of a reward from outside of and beyond the self. However, Hayamizu (1997) argued that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are not bipolar and antagonistic, but rather are located on a continuum of motivation types. Williams and Burden (1997) also claimed that motivation results from a combination of different influences. Some are internal, coming from the learner, such as an interest in the activity or a wish to succeed, while others are external, such as the influence of other people. Supporting the perception of motivation as a multifaceted complex of factors, Brown (1994) proposed a two-by-two matrix representing the combination of the intrinsic-extrinsic dimension with the conventional integrative-instrumental dimension. It is difficult, however, to divide language learning motivation into two distinct types such as integrative-instrumental motivation or intrinsic-extrinsic motivation. Inevita-

bly there will be some areas where these four types overlap.

In addition to the intrinsic-extrinsic paradigm, other important motivation theories from the field of learner cognition are now being considered—what Dörnyei has termed the *Learner Level Component* of motivation (Dörnyei, 1994). These include *goal-setting theory, attribution theory*, and *self-efficacy theory*. *Goal-setting theory* argues that performance is closely related to a person's accepted goals (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). *Attribution theory* claims that the way people explain their own past successes and failures will significantly affect their future achievement behavior (Weiner, 1985). *Self-efficacy theory* suggests that people's judgement of their capabilities to carry out specific tasks will affect their choice of the activities attempted (Dörnyei, 1998).

Besides these theories from educational psychology, there is also a large body of research on anxiety in language learning (Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991, 1994; Tsui, 1996). Anxiety is an extremely crucial cognitive factor for all types of learners and "a most studied motivational aptitude" (Snow & Swanson, 1992, p. 600). Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994), for example, found that anxiety or self-confidence is one of the major contributing factors determining attitude and motivation towards learning a second language.

Research on second/foreign language learning motivation in the 1990s also concentrated on seeking explanations for outcomes of specific language tasks and behaviors rather than pursuing general tendencies in social contexts. In this regard, what Dörnyei proposes as the *learning specific level component*, including *course-specific, teacher-specific* and *group-specific motivational components* (Dörnyei, 1994), should be a subject for extensive research.

Motivation Studies in Japan

Language learning motivation did not become a major research concern in Japan until quite recently. This may be because learner variables in general have not been a focus in foreign language teaching. In Japan the most popular teaching methods have been teacher-centered rather than learner-centered and classes are usually quite large—40 to 50 students per class in most high schools and many universities. Thus the motivation of individual learners has received little attention. Furthermore, although there are some recent studies on language learning motivation in Japan (e.g., Konishi, 1990; Matsukawa & Tachibana, 1996; Miyahara, Namoto, Yamanaka, Murakami, Kinoshita & Yamamoto, 1997; Sawaki, 1997; Takanashi, 1990, 1991; Yashima, 2000),

much of this research has used Gardner's approach for investigating motivation in the ESL context and has also regarded Gardner's findings to be applicable to the Japanese EFL situation. However, since Gardner's theory of motivation addresses the social context, not the individual learner, it is suggested that his theory alone cannot explain what motivates language learners in Japan. More attention must be paid to the educational setting when investigating EFL learning motivation.

To this end, other motivational studies have been conducted using different methodological approaches. For example, in their longitudinal study of attitudes and motivation in English learning among Japanese seventh-grade students, Koizumi and Matsuo (1993) administered the same motivational questionnaire four times and found a decrease in motivation after the initial stage of the learning process. Ogane and Sakamoto (1999) investigated the relationships among EFL motivation and proficiency factors using a structural equation modeling approach. In our pilot study (Kimura, 1999), 390 Japanese university EFL students responded to a 50-item questionnaire on motivation consisting of items not only based on the integrative-instrumental and intrinsic-extrinsic paradigms, but also on other domains such as anxiety, attribution, and teacher-specific and activity-specific motivation. The present questionnaire-based study continues in this direction and is intended to stimulate motivational research focused on educational aspects in Japan.

Research Questions

Dörnyei and his colleagues (Dörnyei, 1990; Clément et al., 1994; Dörnyei, 1996) have suggested that there are other aspects of motivation in addition to the ones in Gardner's theory. However, it would be inappropriate to consider that their research results can be fully applied to the Japanese EFL context since little research has been conducted to identify the various motivational components characterizing different learning contexts in Japan. Thus the present study investigates motivational components among Japanese learners of English from differing learning environments, including junior high school, high school, junior college and university classes. The following research questions were addressed:

1. What are some components of EFL motivation possessed by a sample of Japanese EFL learners?
2. Are the components of EFL motivation different for various Japanese learning situations such as junior high school, high school, junior college and university?
3. What motivational differences exist among gender and grade levels in different Japanese EFL learning situations?

Methods

Participants

The participants in this study were 1,027 Japanese EFL students from 12 different learning contexts. Twelve percent were junior high school students, 45% were senior high school students, 39% were junior college (130) and university students (397), and the remaining 4% were students at a private English language school. Although they ranged in age from 14 to 35, 64% were 14 to 18 years old and 30% were 19 to 22. The male/female ratio was almost even; 43% were male and 57% were female. The participants at the tertiary level were fairly evenly distributed across six majors, that is, junior college English majors, social science majors, science majors, foreign language majors, engineering majors, and English language education majors. The participants comprised a convenience sample since they had been asked to voluntarily fill out the questionnaire by their teachers, who were known by the researchers and who kindly cooperated in the research.

Materials

The questionnaire used in the present study is a partially revised version of the Japanese-language instrument used for the pilot study (Kimura, 1999). It consisted of 50 items arranged in a 6-point Likert scale format, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The question items were based on the components of motivation suggested by Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996). However, some items were either modified or newly added based on Clément et al. (1994), Dörnyei (1990), Miyahara et al. (1997), and Tremblay and Gardner (1995) so that the wordings could more precisely describe the EFL contexts in Japan. The following motivational components were addressed: five items about *Intrinsic Motivation*, six about *Extrinsic Motivation*, seven about *Instrumental Motivation*, five about *Situation Specific Motivation*, four about *Teacher Specific Motivation*, ten about *Activity Specific Motivation*, five about *Attitudes towards Anglophonic Culture and Integrative Motivation*, and eight about *Attribution Theory* (see Table 1 below).

Procedure and Statistical Analyses

The questionnaire was administered in Japanese between January and March, 1999 under the supervision of the participants' English teachers. On completion of the data collection, descriptive statistics were computed for all questionnaire items to eliminate skewed items with ceiling and floor effects. The data was then analyzed in two phases.

First a factor analysis was performed to summarize the underlying characteristics of language learning motivation of this population. This was followed by multivariate analyses of variances (MANOVA) using the factor scores for each motivational factor to investigate the relationship between language learning motivation and learner factors such as gender, academic major, and the institutional grade. Table 1 gives the descriptive statistics for the 50 items.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the 50 Questionnaire Items

#	Questionnaire Items	Mean	S.D.
Intrinsic Motivation			
1	I study English because I like it	3.375	1.576
2	I feel satisfaction when I am learning English	3.205	1.435
3	I wish I could learn English without going to school	3.444	1.595
4	I want to learn any foreign language and as many as possible	3.818	1.633
5	I want to continue studying English for the rest of my life	3.667	1.611
Extrinsic Motivation			
*6	The main reason I am learning English is that I want my parents/ my teacher to be happy about it	1.766	1.116
7	I am learning English because English is my compulsory subject	3.394	1.752
8	The main reason I need to learn English is to pass examinations	3.378	1.678
9	I am learning English because everybody in Japan should be able to understand English nowadays	3.537	1.415
10	I am learning English because English is a must for a Japanese in the global society	3.831	1.466
11	I wouldn't like to learn English if I didn't have to do so (reverse-coded)	3.824	1.738
Instrumental Motivation			
12	I want to learn English because it is useful when traveling in many countries	3.803	1.456
13	I want to learn English because I want to study abroad in the future	2.821	1.590
14	The main reason I am learning English is that my future job requires the English skills	3.224	1.644
15	One reason I am learning English is that I can make friends or correspond with people in foreign countries	3.203	1.657
16	If I learn English better, I will be able to get a better job	3.607	1.546
17	The better marks I can achieve in English class, the more chances I will get to find an exciting job	3.171	1.459
18	Increasing my English proficiency will have a financial benefit for me	2.427	1.348
Situation Specific Motivation (Anxiety)			
19	I feel uncomfortable if I am called on and have to answer the questions in my English class	3.898	1.629
20	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class	3.907	1.577
21	I am afraid other students will laugh at me when I speak English	2.908	1.478
22	I think I can learn English well, but I don't perform well on tests and examinations	3.345	1.428
23	I feel uncomfortable when I have to conduct pair or group work in my English class	3.0497	1.602
Teacher Specific Motivation			
24	I would be encouraged if the teacher spoke only English during the class	3.090	1.431
*25	I would find myself motivated if the teacher had blue eyes and fair hair	2.551	1.557
26	I would be more interested in English if the teacher was a person who patiently explains difficult matters of the English language in Japanese	4.269	1.412
27	I would be discouraged if the English teacher had each student read aloud or answer questions after calling on them individually (reverse-coded)	3.231	1.556
Activity Specific Motivation			
28	I would be encouraged to learn English if I had more explanations of grammatical points and Japanese translation	3.007	1.441
29	I like English learning activities in which students work together in pairs or small groups	3.433	1.391
30	I would like to have a class where only English is spoken	2.780	1.390
31	In English class, the teacher should do most of the talking while the students should only answer when they are called upon	2.441	1.278
32	I prefer to work by myself in English class, not with other students	2.869	1.456
33	Activities in the class should be designed to help the students improve their abilities to communicate in English	3.912	1.506
*34	Group activities and pair work in English class are a waste of time	2.243	1.326
35	In my English class, I want to read English novels or English news articles	3.478	1.452
**36	In my English class, I enjoy learning when emphasis is put on such things as movies or music	4.878	1.260

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37	I want to practice the questions of the proficiency test such as STEP**** or TOEFL	3 517	1 469
Integrative Motivation			
38	I long for American or British culture	3 931	1 648
39	I would like to make American or British friends	4 085	1 642
40	I am learning English because I can touch upon the cultures of English-speaking countries	3 693	1 533
41	I am learning English because I can communicate with people in Southeast Asia or Africa (reverse-corded)	3 739	1 515
42	Most of my favorite actors and musicians are either British or American	2 708	1 535
Attribution			
43	My success in learning English in this class is a direct result of my effort	4 477	1 440
44	My accomplishments in English in this class are mainly due to the teacher.	3 348	1 417
**45	If I receive a poor grade in this English class, it is because I haven't studied enough	4 723	1 415
46	If I receive a poor grade in this English class, it is due to the teaching	2 592	1 386
47	If I receive a poor grade in this English class, it is due to the quality of teaching	2 893	1 411
*48	Main reason I don't like English is because there was a teacher I did not like in the past	2 353	1 601
49	Main reason I like English is because I was praised by an English teacher in the past	2 619	1 515
50	Main reason I like English is because I was taught by a good English teacher in the past	3 108	1 632

Note. *Floor effects; **Ceiling effects; ***The Society for Testing English Proficiency

Examination of the mean and standard deviations for the 50 items revealed that four items were left-skewed and two items were right-skewed. The left-skewed items, or the items to which the participants responded extremely negatively, include Items 6 (*The reason for studying English is to make parents or teachers happy.*), 25 (*The appearance of teachers such as blue eyes or fair hair motivates one's English language learning.*), 34 (*Pair or group activities are a waste of time.*) and 48 (*One's dislike of English can be attributed to the existence of repulsive teachers.*). The right-skewed items were Items 36 (*I want English class to be enjoyable by incorporating activities such as watching movies and singing songs.*) and 45 (*Poor results can be attributed to poor devotion to study.*). The participants responded to these items to an extremely positive degree. Therefore, the six skewed items were excluded from further analysis. Statistical analyses were conducted using *SPSS10.07* (1999). Cronbach's alpha statistics were computed for the 44 remaining questionnaire items and a reliability of .865 was obtained.

Results

Some Components of Motivation in the Japanese EFL Context

Using the Principal Factors procedure and Varimax Rotation, six factors were extracted. Table 2 presents the factor matrix with an item loading greater than .40 as the criterion of salience. These factors accounted for 50.42% of the variance in the 44 items.

Factor 1 received appreciable loadings from 13 items, the largest component of language learning motivation for this sample. As shown in Table 2, the variables for this factor were quite diverse. Four items

(39, 40, 38, 41) relate to integrative motivation, while others (15, 13, 12, 14) concern instrumental motivation. Still others (5, 4, 3) relate to intrinsic motivation. Thus this factor is called *Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive*.

Factor 2 received loadings from six items (9, 17, 8, 18, 7, 37). Items 9, 8 and 7 are concerned with extrinsic motivation, while Items 17 and 18 are typical of instrumental motivation. Therefore, this factor can be labeled *Extrinsic-Instrumental Motive*.

Table 2: Results of Factor Analysis for All Subjects (n=1,027)

Item #	Questionnaire Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	h^2
39	Want to make American or British friends.	809						668
40	To touch upon the culture of English-speaking countries.	803						706
15	To make friends or correspond with people in foreign countries.	704						591
38	Long for American or British culture.	686						554
41	To communicate with people in Southeast Asia or Africa.	685						560
5	Want to continue studying English for the rest of my life.	647						700
13	To study abroad in the future.	623						522
4	Want to learn any foreign language (as many as possible)	616						483
33	Activities should be to improve communication skills in English.	515						528
11	Would not learn English if I didn't have to do so (reverse-coded)	504						558
12	Useful when traveling in many countries.	500						406
14	My future job requires English skills.	483						584
3	Wish I could learn English without going to school.	439						326
9	Everybody in Japan should be able to understand English nowadays		647					546
17	To find an exciting job.		574					522
8	To pass examinations.		553					484
18	To have a financial benefit for me.		517					440
7	Because English is a compulsory subject.		481					429
37	Want to practice the questions for the proficiency test.		449					290
50	Like English because taught by a good English teacher.			540				421
49	Like English because praised by an English teacher before.			515				374
20	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.				753			581
19	Feel uncomfortable if called on to answer questions in class.				723			552
21	I am afraid other students will laugh at me when I speak English.				534			362
22	I don't perform well on tests and examinations.				448			239
32	Prefer to work alone in English class.					733		440
29	Fond of pair or group activities.					582		503
31	Fond of teacher-centered lectures					575		307
47	Poor grade in this class can be attributed to the quality of the teaching.						824	553
46	Poor grade in this class can be attributed to the quality of the teacher.						776	547
	Eigenvalue	10 30	4 51	2 05	1 98	1 75	1 58	
	Percentage of Variance	23 42	10 25	4 67	4 51	3 99	3 59	
	Cumulative Percentage of the Total Variance	23 42	33 66	38 33	42 84	46 82	50 42	

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Factor 3 received loadings from two items (50, 49), both of which relate to positive aspects of teachers. Therefore this factor can be termed *Influence of Good Teachers*.

The four items of Factor 4 all relate to anxiety in language learning. Using the terminology of Horwitz et al. (1986), Items 20 and 19 are called *Communication Apprehension*, Item 21 is interpreted as *Fear of Negative Evaluation* and Item 22 is *Test-Anxiety*. These items connote negative anxiety, also known as debilitative anxiety, compared with the positive form of anxiety termed facilitative anxiety (Brown, 1994). Following Dörnyei (1994), this factor is therefore called *Language Use Anxiety*.

Factor 5 is characterized by heavy loadings from three items (32, 29, 31). Though they are all related to classroom activities, Items 32 and 31 have positive loading values, indicating a preference for teacher-centered lectures, whereas Item 29 has a negative value, implying an unwillingness to participate in pair or group activities. Therefore, this factor can be called *Preference for Teacher-Centered Lectures*.

Factor 6 obtains appreciable loadings from two items (47, 46) implying a negative inclination towards learning language due to past unpleasant experiences. Considering Weiner's (1985) Attribution Theory, Nakata (1999) suggests that learners scoring high on this factor can still maintain their self-worth and control their effort. This factor is labeled *Negative Learning Experiences*.

Differences among the Components of Motivation in Various Japanese EFL Milieus

The six factor scores were submitted to one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) as dependent variables with participants' institutions or majors as independent variables. All multivariate *F* statistics (i.e., Pillai's trace, Wilks' lambda, Hotelling's trace, and Roy's largest root) were significant at the .001 alpha level. Therefore, univariate analysis variance was run for the six dependent variables. The univariate *F* values of all factors except Factor 5 and Factor 6 were significant at the .001 alpha level (see Table 3).

Table 3: Results of Univariate Analysis of Variance and Mean Factor Scores

	F (8, 1018)	JHS	SHS	JC	SO	SC	FL	EG	ED	LS
Factor 1	13.694 ***	.186	-.253	.355	-.002	-.313	.569	-.575	.436	.482
Factor 2	13.047***	.597	-.113	-.010	.291	.213	-.334	.468	-.406	-.719
Factor 3	17.744***	-.071	-.310	.488	-.005	-.012	.568	-.234	.862	.631
Factor 4	7.743***	-.182	.176	.079	-.033	.352	-.615	-.128	-.135	-.372

Factor 5	2.690*	-.079	.083	.075	-.027	-.055	-.162	.182	-.146	-.132
Factor 6	1.931	-.092	.038	.170	.029	-.016	.190	-.091	-.141	-.382

Note. JHS=junior high school (n=124); SHS=senior high school (n=461); JC=junior college (n=130), SO= social (n=83); SC=Science (n=34); FL=Foreign language (n=85); EG=engineer (n=40); ED=education (English major) (n=25); LS=language school (n=45)

*p<.01 ***p<.001

Posthoc Scheffé's test revealed that there were several significant pairs among the factors from Factor 1 to Factor 4. Table 4 summarizes these results.

Table 4: Summary of Post-hoc Scheffé's Test

Factors	Post hoc (Scheffé's test) Results
Factor 1	FL>(SHS***, SO*, SC**, EG***); LS>(SHS***, EG***); JC>(SHS***, EG***); JHS>(SHS**, EG**); ED>EG*;
Factor 2	JHS>(SHS***, JC**, FL*, ED***); EG> (LS***, SHS*, FL**, ED*); SO>(LS***, SHS*, FL**); SC>LG**; JC>LS**
Factor 3	LS>(JHS***, SHS***, EG***, SO*); FL>(JHS***, SHS***, EG***, SO**), ED>(JHS***, SHS***, EG***, SO**, SC*); JC>(JHS***, SHS***, EG***)
Factor 4	SHS>FL***, SO>FL**; SC>FL***, JC>FL***

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

The results of Table 4 are further summarized in Table 5 to reveal the relationship between each motivational factor and category. The summary identifies pairs with a relationship at the .001 significance level.

Table 5: Conceptual Summary of Motivational Factors

	JHS	SHS	JC	SO	SC	FL	EG	ED	LS
Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive	+	–	+			+	–		+
Extrinsic-Instrumental Motive	+	–		–			+		–
Influence of Good Teachers	–	–	+		–	+	–	+	+
Language Use Anxiety		+	+		+	–			

Table 5 indicates that Factor 1 (Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive) was high among junior high school learners, junior college English majors, foreign language majors, and English language school learners. Since these subjects are either learners at the early stages of

their learning experience or have clear goals for learning English, it appears that such learners tend to be motivated by a combination of intrinsic, instrumental, and integrative concerns. On the other hand, Factor 2 (Extrinsic-Instrumental Motive) is positive only among junior high learners and engineering majors and is negative for senior high learners, social science majors, education majors, and those studying at a language school. Engineering majors apparently tend to study English for more extrinsic and pragmatic reasons than those who feel they need English for their future careers, such as students majoring in English education and those studying at an English language school. Table 5 also indicates that learners who are familiar with English or need English for their careers (e.g., junior college English majors, university students majoring in English as a foreign language, and those studying English at a language school) felt that their teachers had a positive influence on their learning process while those in secondary school or those majoring in science or engineering did not. Finally, learners majoring in English as a foreign language reported less anxiety in the classroom than senior high students, junior college English majors, or social science majors.

Motivational Differences According to Gender and Grade Level

In order to investigate motivational differences with regard to gender and grade level, a 2 (male and female) by 6 (grade level) two-way MANOVA was performed with the six factor scores as dependent variables. The analysis confirmed that all multivariate *F*statistics (i.e., Pillai's trace, Wilks' lambda, Hotelling's trace and Roy's largest root) for the two main effects of gender and grade as well as interaction effects were significant (see Table 6). Therefore, a univariate analysis of variance for gender and grade interaction was performed to see which dependent variables were significant. As is shown in Table 7, only Factor 5 (Preference for Teacher-centered Lectures) was significant at the .005 level.

Table 6: Results of Two (Gender) by Six (Grade) Two-way MANOVA

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Gender (A)					
Pilla's trace	.094	15.484	6	897	.000
Wilks' lambda	.906	15.484	6	897	.000
Hotteling's trace	.104	15.484	6	897	.000
Roy's largest root	.104	15.484		897	

Grade Level (B)					
Pilla's trace	.240	7.585	30	4505	.000
Wilks' lambda	.776	7.840	30	3590	.000
Hotteling's trace	.269	8.014	30	4477	.000
Roy's largest root	.166	24.999		901	
A x B					
Pilla's trace	.061	1.853	30	4505	.003
Wilks' lambda	.940	1.859	30	3590	.003
Hotteling's trace	.062	1.862	30	4477	.003
Roy's largest root	.033	4.904	6	901	000

Table 7: Univariate ANOVA for Gender and Grade Interaction

Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Factor 1	6.726	5	1.345	1.730	.125
Factor 2	6.961	5	1.392	1.897	.092
Factor 3	5.352	5	1.070	1.672	.139
Factor 4	4.424	5	.885	1.168	.323
Factor 5	12.891	5	2.578	3.350	.005
Factor 6	5.576	5	1.115	1.348	.242

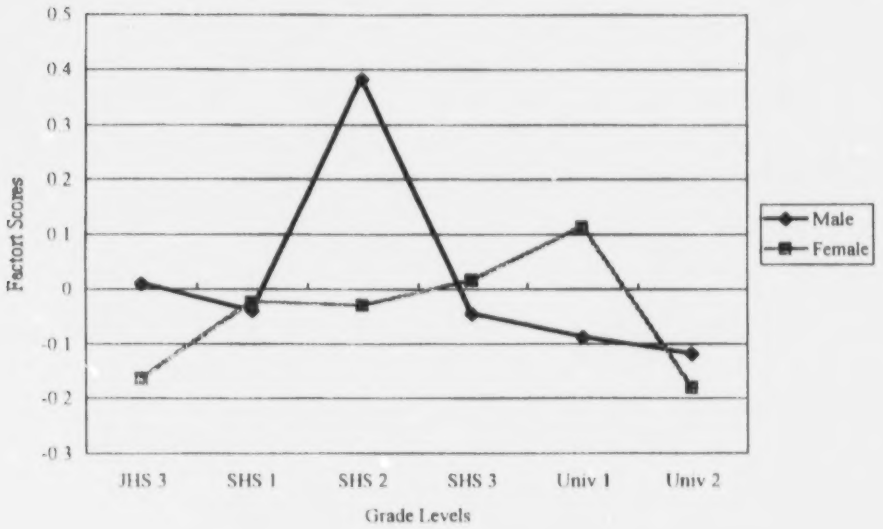
The descriptive statistics for Factor 5 are shown in Table 8 and the results are graphically summarized in Figure 1.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics for Factor 5

		n	*M*	*SD*
Male	J 3	62	.008	1.019
	SHS 1	61	-.039	.893
	SHS 2	122	.381	.847
	SHS 3	55	-.046	.869
	Univ 1	106	-.090	.910
	Univ 2	13	-.119	.618
Female	J 3	62	-.165	.984
	SHS 1	53	-.025	.931
	SHS 2	144	-.030	.850
	SHS 3	25	.016	.904
	Univ 1	137	.113	.765
	Univ 2	74	-.182	.886

Note. M=male (n=419); F=female (n=495); JHS3=junior high school 3rd year (n=124); SHS1=senior high school 1st year (n=114); SHS2=senior high school 2nd year (n=266); SHS3=senior high school 3rd year (n=80); Univ1=University 1st year (n=243); Univ 2=University 2nd year (n=87).
Due to the small number of participants, university 3rd and 4th year students as well as language school participants were excluded from the analysis.

Figure 1: Interaction Plot for Factor 5



Examination of Figure 1, the interaction plot for Factor 5 as determined by a posthoc contrast (Scheffé test), revealed that the second year male high school participants significantly preferred teacher-centered lectures. This outcome is somewhat perplexing. However the sample of second year high school students used here was taken from three different schools with somewhat different academic expectations. Two of the schools are considered to be fairly academic while the remaining one is not, which may account for this result. Further studies are necessary to clarify this point.

Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

This study has attempted to identify the characteristics of foreign language motivation possessed by a range of EFL learners in Japan. The largest factor of language learning motivation observed is complex, consisting of intrinsic, integrative and instrumental subscales. This complexity is consistent with the findings of Koizumi and Matsuo (1993) and Matsukawa and Tachibana (1996), who suggest that there are multiple factors of language learning motivation among Japanese junior high school EFL students. The complexity of the first factor accurately reflects the lack of a single motivational factor among the present subjects as well, and may be evidence of the difficulty that many teachers report in motivating Japanese EFL learners. Comparative studies on learning styles such as Reid's (1987) have indicated Japanese learners' lack of predominant learning styles in comparison to

learners of other nationalities. The present findings support the implication that Japanese learners may be not so easily motivated to learn foreign languages.

However, a close examination of each questionnaire item for this factor (Table 2) shows that there seem to be three fairly distinct dimensions of "integrativeness." Items 39 (*Want to make American or British friends*) and 38 (*Long for American or British culture*) can be defined as Attitudes Towards Anglophonic Culture, whereas Items 40 (*To touch upon the culture of English-speaking countries*), 15 (*To make friends or correspond with people in foreign countries*), and 41 (*To communicate with people in Southeast Asia or Africa*)[negative loading] are similar to Gardner's (1985) definition of the integrative motive, also involving to some extent Graham's assimilative motivation (Graham, cited in Brown, 1994, p. 155). On the other hand, Items 12 (*Useful when traveling in many countries*) and 33 (*Activities should be to improve communication skills in English.*) can be described as the "friendship orientation" or "travel orientation" described by Clément and Kruidenier (1985), since opportunities for communication in a foreign language can easily be found while traveling in foreign countries.

Further interpretation of the items in Factor 1 and 2 in relation to their original subscales of motivation in our questionnaire reveals another characteristic about EFL instrumental motivation in Japan. Items 15 (*To make friends or correspond with people in foreign countries*), 13 (*To study abroad in the future*), and 12 (*Useful when traveling in many countries*) were originally clustered on the instrumental subscale. However, as suggested above, these items seem to have a more integrative connotation when taken together with the other questionnaire items in Factor 1. This is a very different characteristic from that of the items originally clustered on the same instrumental subscale but located in Factor 2, such as Item 17 (*To find an exciting job*) or 18 (*To have a financial benefit*), which have stronger pragmatic connotations. The fact that items originally clustered in the same category as instrumental motivation exist in separate factors with slightly different connotations—the ones in Factor 1 being more integratively oriented and the ones in Factor 2 being more instrumental in a pragmatic sense—implies that the instrumental motivation found in the present study has multifaceted aspects. Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) describe two distinct kinds of instrumental motivation as follows:

> To the extent that an instrumental motive is tied to a specific goal, however, its influence would tend to be maintained only

> until that goal is achieved . . .On the other hand, if the goal is continuous, it seems possible that an instrumental motivation would also continue to be effective (pp. 70-71).

In the present study, however, the subscale items for instrumental motivation located in Factor 1 (Items 15, 13, and 12) might apply to cases related to continuous goals. Making foreign friends or going abroad for study or sightseeing purposes often requires learners to set long-term goals. On the other hand, the more pragmatic subscale items located in Factor 2 (Items 17 and 18) might be tied to a specific goal because finding an exciting job or receiving financial benefits relate more to short-term goals.

The existence of Factor 3 (Influence of Good Teachers) suggests that learners may attribute their success in learning a foreign language to their teachers. This result may seem to contradict Factor 5 which represents bad learning experiences caused by teachers or their teaching. However, this apparent contradiction can be interpreted as the opposite sides of the same coin. Teachers in a non-ESL setting such as Japan may have a greater influence on their learners in both positive and negative ways than ESL teachers. Unlike the ESL context, where learners are exposed to the target language outside of class, teachers in the Japanese EFL context tend to be the main provider of English due to the absence of a target language community.

Another finding, Factor 4 (Language Use Anxiety), is also worthy of mention. Anxiety is usually considered to influence the language learning process. For example, Tsui's (1996) qualitative data analyses of reticence in Hong Kong EFL classes illustrate how language learning anxiety among Chinese students hinders their classroom interactions. According to Tsui, students did not take the initiative or answer questions until they were asked by the teacher to do so. Although the students knew the answers, they felt anxious and did not want "to give their peers the impression that they are showing off" (Tsui, 1996, p. 158). It would be beneficial for teachers in the similar Japanese EFL setting to adopt the classroom strategies specified by Tsui (1996) such as "improving questioning technique," "accepting a variety of answers," and "peer support and group work or focus on content" (Tsui, 1996, pp. 161-163). It is also crucial for EFL teachers to create a comfortable classroom environment and to establish good relationships with their students, and thereby minimize negative anxiety.

Factor 5 (Preference for Teacher-centered Lectures) and Factor 6 (Negative Learning Experiences) were both shown to be motivational factors for EFL learners in Japan. Both of these factors as well as Factor

3 (Language Use Anxiety) are negative aspects in learning foreign languages. For example, those who have had negative experiences due to poor teachers or teaching may have high negative anxiety. Such learners may be inactive in class and may have lost interest in learning the foreign language. As a result, they may prefer passive or teacher-led language classes. Providing these learners with extracurricular opportunities may be one way to assist them to overcome their anxiety and negative feelings. For example, class journals for students or an e-mail bulletin board on the teacher's website can expand the chances of communication between teachers and learners.

A second purpose of this study was to investigate motivational factors present within different learning contexts. The major finding here is that those learners who need English skills for their present or future careers tend to be motivated intrinsically and integratively as well as instrumentally. One interesting phenomenon (Table 5) is that different motivational patterns can be observed for junior and senior high school learners. Both Factor 1 (Intrinsic-Instrumental-Integrative Motive) and Factor 2 (Extrinsic-Instrumental Motive) are high among junior high school 3rd year learners yet both were low among senior high school learners. This result suggests that junior high school learners are highly motivated compared to senior high school learners. However, in this sample, all of the 3rd year junior high school students attended a school attached to a national university of education and had been screened by strict entrance examinations. Under such circumstances, it is not surprising that the present junior high school students showed high motivation scores. This finding must be confirmed by studies with different populations of junior and senior high school learners.

Another explanation can be found in the difficulty of holding learners' interest in studying English for a long period of time. While Japanese junior high school EFL learners are usually enthusiastic about English at least during the first semester of their first year, they start exhibiting unwilling attitudes towards learning English during the first semester of their second year (Hatori & Matsuhata, 1980). Another nationwide survey shows that 30.8 percent of high school students expressed an unwillingness to study English (Matsuura, Nishimoto, Ikeda, Kaneshige, Ito & Miura, 1997). These results support the suggestion that the senior high school EFL learners in the present study were less motivated than those in junior high school.

The final goal of this study was to explore motivational differences with regard to gender and grade levels. However, based on the results of the multivariate analyses of variance, interpretation of the signifi-

cant interaction of gender and grade for Factor 5 (Preference for Teacher-centered Lectures) is difficult. One possible explanation for the high scores of the high school 2nd year male students is that they were particularly well motivated in terms of preparing for entrance examinations, and were willing to listen to English lessons presented in a lecture style. As mentioned, the high schools from which these students were drawn were relatively high in terms of academic level. As to why the female students from the same schools did not show the same results, it is necessary to wait until more research is conducted.

Conclusion

The findings from this study of a large sample of Japanese EFL learners from various learning milieus support several suggestions which have been made about language learning motivation. The data clearly indicates that the largest motivational factor in English language learning among Japanese EFL students is complex, with both intrinsic and integrative characteristics. What has been defined as instrumental motivation in the ESL context was also found to be the second largest motivational component among the present EFL learners, but in the Japanese context instrumentality itself seems to be multifaceted in nature.

The present data also suggests that Japanese EFL learners have inhibitory factors operating against learning English such as anxiety, past negative experiences, or preferring teacher-dominated lectures. However the learners also hold an affirmative motivational factor recognizing the role of teachers in facilitating successful learning. These findings imply that EFL teachers should pay careful attention to their students, not only from a narrow pedagogical standpoint, but also in terms of human relations between learners and facilitators.

There are at least four areas that should be investigated in future research. First, the survey should be redesigned to include a more careful selection of items. Although the items in the present investigation were developed based on previous studies, with some items being directly adopted and others being modified or newly created, all items did not necessarily perform well. For example, although items such as Item 25 (*The appearance of teachers such as blue eyes or fair hair motivates one's English language learning*) were included because of the existence of this attitude elsewhere (for example, Suzuki, 1999), the item was extremely negatively skewed, meaning that Japanese EFL learners may no longer possess this sort of appearance-related xenophilic motivation for English learning.

Second, the motivation sub-categories should be reconsidered. Al-

though the present questionnaire incorporated motivational components based on research in educational psychology, such as attribution, anxiety, and teacher-specific and activity-specific motivation, ample room is left for other components to be included.

Third, the relationships among motivational factors should be explored more fully. One way to analyze this is to employ a structural modeling approach to the present data. Finally, as Fotos (1994) notes, the research methodologies used to study language learning motivation should be more diverse. Research in this area "has been typically conducted using survey methods that have varied little since Gardner published his general research design in 1968" (Fotos, 1994, p. 44). However, it is insufficient to merely replicate this research, relying only on numerical data. Rather, future study should employ plural methods of data collection, including qualitative methods such as ethnographic classroom observation, classroom discourse protocol analysis, and diary analysis.

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Beliefs about Learning and Teaching Communicative English in Japan

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This study examines Japanese university EFL student and teacher beliefs about learning and teaching communicative English in Japan. Over 300 students and 82 college teachers were given a 36-item questionnaire to assess their beliefs about (a) important instructional areas, (b) goals and objectives, (c) instructional styles and methods, (d) teaching materials, and (e) cultural matters. The results indicate that many students preferred traditional styles of ELT pedagogy including a teacher-centered approach (listening to lectures), learning isolated skills (pronunciation), and focusing on accuracy (Japanese translation). On the other hand, the teachers' preferences appeared to have shifted towards more recent pedagogy such as a learner-centered approach, integrated skills, and a focus on fluency. These results suggest that constant assessment of student beliefs is essential to link ELT theories and classroom practice.

本研究は、コミュニケーションを目的とする英語教育及び学習に対する日本人大学生と教師の認識について調査したものである。３００人以上の学生と８２大学の教師が＜被験者＞として教授領域、目標・目的、教授法、教材、文化的側面をめぐる36項目の質問紙に答えた。学生被験者の多くは、教師中心のアプローチ（例、講義）、独立したスキル（例、発音）、正確さ（例、日本語訳）などで表現される伝統的な教授スタイルを好む傾向を示した。一方、教師の側は、学習者中心のアプローチ、統合的スキル、流暢さなどをキーワードとするより新しい教授スタイルに嗜好が移行している。本研究結果は、教授理論と教室での実践との関係をより向上させるためには、英語教育に対する学習者の考えを継続的に調査することが重要であることを示唆している。

English education in Japan has seen a number of changes over the past 15 years. The Ministry of Education (MOE) has initiated several reforms at the secondary school level aimed at changing the prevailing system of English education, often dominated by

grammar-translation pedagogy, to one with a stronger emphasis on communication. The first of two prominent reforms is the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) Program, in which native English speaking ALTs (Assistant Language Teachers) team teach public school English classes with Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2000). In 1999 alone 5,241 ALTs were appointed to junior and senior high schools throughout Japan (Ministry of Education, 1999a). The second MOE initiative was the 1994 introduction of a new high school subject, Oral Communication, consisting of three courses on listening, speaking, and discussion/debate. Many high schools have implemented this program and use oral communication textbooks screened and approved by MOE officials. Thus English education in Japan has progressed in the direction of teaching the language for communication.

At the university level as well, teaching and learning communication skills in English is now considered to be important. In November, 1999 the MOE asked one of its advisory boards to consider what language education ought to consist of, and in particular, to recommend how communication skills could be improved (Ministry of Education, 1999b). Recognizing that English is an important means of communication, the advisory board emphasized the need for increased English ability for all students, especially in the areas of listening and speaking (Ministry of Education, 2000). However, despite this stress on the communicative use of English, neither the MOE nor the advisory board has provided guidance as to pedagogical goals, objectives, or teaching methods for communicative English instruction. Therefore in practice these remain quite diverse, with unpredictable and unreliable outcomes. Unlike secondary school classes, university English classes need not use MOE-approved English textbooks, so there is a range of material and course designs. Thus both students and teachers continue to hold various beliefs about how English should be learned.

Learner and Teacher Beliefs about Language Learning

Learner beliefs about language learning is an important research area in ESL/EFL. As Horwitz (1988) pointed out, investigating learners' beliefs has "relevance to the understanding of their expectations of, commitment to, success in, and satisfaction with language classes" (p. 283). Although few researchers have examined students' beliefs about language learning (see Wenden, 1986; Horwitz, 1988; Mori, 1999), students hold various ideas and beliefs as to how they can better learn a

language and how teachers can help them. It is worthwhile, therefore, to investigate how student beliefs differ from teacher beliefs because such differences can influence the effectiveness of classroom instruction.

Learner Beliefs

A study by Horwitz (1988) investigated beliefs of university students in beginning-level foreign language classes. Using the BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) scale (Horwitz, 1985), Horwitz assessed student beliefs in five areas: (a) difficulty of language learning, (b) foreign language aptitude, (c) the nature of language learning, (d) learning communication strategies, and (e) motivations and expectations. Wenden (1986) also examined learner beliefs about second language learning by interviewing a group of adult ESL learners in advanced-level English classes in the U.S.A. and classifying their responses into five categories: (a) designating (language), (b) diagnosing (language proficiency), (c) evaluating (outcome of strategies), (d) self-analyzing (personal factors), and (e) theorizing (how best to approach language learning).

Teacher Beliefs

Other researchers have investigated beliefs and attitudes held by teachers (see Wolf & Riordan, 1991; Chiba & Matsuura, 1998; Renandya, Lim, Leong & Jacobs, 1999). Wolf and Riordan (1991), for example, conducted a survey on attitudes of foreign language teachers toward curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices. Their survey included two instructional approaches, a traditional approach and a teaching-for-proficiency approach. Teachers who preferred the traditional approach were likely to agree with such questionnaire items as "*In introductory classes students should focus only on the grammar mechanics of the language,*" and "*Direct translation into the native language is the most effective way to evaluate reading comprehension*" (p. 475). On the other hand, teachers who preferred the teaching-for-proficiency approach were likely to think that "*Teachers should evaluate communication activities by the success of the communication,*" and "*Teachers should include some communication activities in student evaluation procedures at all levels of instruction*" (p. 476). For this group the traditional teaching approach received either "disagree" or "strongly disagree" as responses while the teaching-for-proficiency approach elicited either "agree" or "strongly agree" reactions.

In a survey of teacher attitudes in Japan, Chiba and Matsuura (1998)

reported findings from a Japanese university freshman EFL program where native English speakers and Japanese teachers team taught the same classes. The researchers examined differences in ideas about course objectives, teaching styles, materials, and cultural concerns between native English speaking teachers and Japanese teachers of English, and the results indicated some differences in teaching styles between the two groups. The native English speaking teachers tended to believe more strongly than their Japanese counterparts that group work and game-oriented activities are effective for Japanese students. While most Japanese teachers of English felt that using the students' first language (L1) is helpful or necessary, most native English speaking teachers disagreed with the idea of using the students' L1 in English class. Furthermore, the Japanese teachers of English were relatively strict regarding their students' linguistic errors, whereas the native English speaking teachers tended to show more tolerance toward errors.

Research Focus

The present study uses a questionnaire to examine Japanese university EFL students' beliefs about learning and teaching communicative English and compares them with those of university EFL teachers. The research questions are:

1. What instructional areas do Japanese university EFL students and teachers believe are important in learning and teaching communicative English?
2. How do both groups think that students can best approach English in the Japanese university EFL classroom?
3. How do Japanese university EFL student beliefs differ from teacher beliefs?

Method

Subjects

Students

The 301 participants in this study were enrolled in English classes taught by the three investigators at three universities in Tokyo, Fukushima, and Kanagawa and thus constitute a convenience sample. They were all native Japanese speakers studying English as a foreign language (EFL). Their average age was 19.6 years old with a range of 18 to 26; 85 were male and 211 were female and five were of unknown gender. One hun-

dred forty-two students (47%) were majoring in English, 84 (27.9%) in economics, 61 (20.3%) in education, 10 (3.3%) in international relations, and 4 (1.3%) in other fields.

Teachers

A convenience sample of 82 Japanese college and university English teachers collaborated in this study. The teachers included colleagues of the investigators as well as volunteers recruited at a professional conference and through the Internet. Forty-one were native English speakers and 41 were native Japanese speakers, with an average age of 42.1 (*SD*=8.9) and 45.8 (*SD*=12.1) respectively. The native English speaker group consisted of 29 Americans, seven British, three Canadians, and two Irish. Their average length of stay in Japan was 8.77 years, with a range of four months to 35 years. Sixty teachers (73.2%) were teaching General English, 55 (67.1%) were teaching Listening, 52 (63.4%) were teaching Speaking, 54 (65.9%) were teaching Reading, and 63 (76.8%) were teaching Writing. The length of their teaching experience ranged from two years to 45 years, with an average of 15.88 years.

Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were developed, one for the students and the other for the teachers. Each consisted of 36 statements followed by a 6-point Likert scale to indicate agreement or disagreement. The investigators decided to use a 6-point scale rather than a 7-point scale hoping that subjects would more clearly indicate either positive or negative attitudes toward each questionnaire item. The subjects were asked to read each statement and indicate their reaction by choosing a number from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree). The questionnaires were constructed by modifying the questionnaire Chiba and Matsuura (1998) used previously, adding items to elicit subjects' beliefs regarding important aspects for communicative language learning and teaching.

The student version of the questionnaire was written in Japanese and elicited beliefs about learning. The teacher version was written in English and elicited beliefs about teaching. Although the wording of the two questionnaires was not the same, the statements in both aimed to assess a variety of beliefs in the following five categories: (a) important instructional areas in communicative language learning and teaching, (b) goals and objectives, (c) teaching styles and methods, (d) teaching materials, and (e) cultural matters. Aspects of communicative language learning and teaching included such instructional areas as lis-

tening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, pronunciation, culture, and language function. The term "styles" in "teaching styles" simply referred to methods of teaching and did not indicate aspects of individual differences such as cognitive styles (e.g., field-dependence vs. field-independence) or the affective styles (e.g., ambiguity tolerance vs. ambiguity intolerance) which have been investigated in language learning and teaching research (see Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Reid, 1995).

Data Collection Procedures

The investigators distributed the student version of the questionnaire during regular EFL classes at three universities where they were teaching. Response was optional. The teacher version of the questionnaire was distributed as printed copies and on the Internet. Hard copies, with a return envelope, were handed out to approximately 70 college English teachers at a professional conference and at the schools where they worked. Nearly 90% of the teachers answered the questionnaire. The Internet home page address, attached to e-mail messages requesting collaboration, was sent out to approximately 200 teachers randomly selected from a member list of an academic organization for college EFL teaching. Only about 10% of those who received the e-mail responded to the web version of the questionnaire. The investigators speculated that one reason for the low return rate was that the e-mail request could be ignored relatively easily, especially when the e-mail receiver did not know who the senders were. Another reason was caused by technical problems with the software. The investigators received messages from several e-mail recipients reporting that they could not access the web page. Better ways of collecting data through the Internet need to be developed for future studies.

Data Analyses

As stated earlier, the students and teachers in this study answered two different questionnaires, the student version written in Japanese and the teacher version written in English. The stimulus statements in both versions were developed so that students and teachers could indicate their beliefs regarding common concepts. Consequently, the wording and perspectives of each statement were not always identical so it was impossible to compare the answers of students and teachers directly and statistically. For example, Item 12 in the student version was intended to elicit general views of the communicative English classroom through the statement, *"Speaking is an important aspect of learning*

communication." On the other hand, the statement in the teacher version was intended to investigate how many teachers taught speaking in their class and was worded *"Speaking is an important aspect of teaching communication in my class."*

The following sections compare the percentages of students and teachers who were positive or negative toward each questionnaire item. In addition, some perceptual differences between native English speaking teachers and Japanese teachers of English are analyzed in terms of teaching communicative English. For this purpose independent *t*-tests followed by a Bonferroni correction were used to determine the significance of differences between the responses of the English native speaker teachers and the Japanese teachers to nine items reflecting the four skills of English, cultural aspects, speech functions, and non-verbal communication: Item 6, Functions; Item 12, Speaking; Item 15, Grammar; Item 19, Listening; Item 23, Cultural differences; Item 25, Reading; Item 30, Non-verbal cues; Item 31, Pronunciation; and Item 35, Writing.

Results

Beliefs about Important Instructional Areas

As shown in Table 1, the students tended to consider the nine aspects of the questionnaire (i.e., functions, speaking, grammar, listening, cultural differences, reading, non-verbal cues, pronunciation, and writing) important for learning communicative English. However the traditional instructional areas (reading, writing, and grammar) were not considered as important as speaking and listening. The teachers' views were similar to the students' views except for pronunciation (Item 31). Here only 68.3% of the teachers indicated that they emphasized teaching pronunciation, whereas more than 91% of the students indicated that learning correct pronunciation was important.

As shown in Table 2, the teachers' native language appeared to influence their responses. As measured by independent *t*-tests comparing the mean scores for the nine questionnaire aspects, the native English speaking teachers and the Japanese teachers of English gave significantly different responses to most of the items except for Items 15, 25, and 35. However, after application of the Bonferroni correction procedure (dividing the alpha level of .05 by the number of *t*- tests performed [nine], giving a very conservative significance level of .0056), only Items 12 (Speaking) and 30 (Non verbal cues) were significantly different between the two groups of teachers. This difference suggested the presence of different attitudes regarding instructional areas other than grammar, reading, and writing, traditionally well-

Table 1: Beliefs about Important Instructional Areas

			strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	slightly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
6.	(S)	Learning about functional language such as asking for information and apologizing is important for communication.	33.2	33.2	21.6	8.3	2.7	1.0
	(T)	Functional language such as asking for information and apologizing is an important aspect of teaching communication in my class.	19.5	25.6	25.6	11.0	15.9	1.2
12.	(S)	Speaking is an important aspect of learning communication.	42.5	38.5	15.3	2.3	1.3	0.0
	(T)	Speaking is an important aspect of teaching communication in my class.	39.0	29.3	13.4	13.4	3.7	1.2
15.	(S)	Grammar is an important aspect of learning communication.	5.6	17.3	36.5	27.2	10.3	3.0
	(T)	Grammar is an important aspect of teaching communication in my class.	2.4	17.1	28.0	22.0	23.2	4.9
19.	(S)	Listening is an important aspect of learning communication.	33.2	42.5	18.3	2.7	1.3	0.3
	(T)	Listening is an important aspect of teaching communication in my class.	35.4	37.8	17.1	6.1	2.4	0.0
23.	(S)	Learning about cultural differences is important for communication.	26.9	32.9	30.6	6.0	1.3	0.7
	(T)	Teaching about cultural differences is an important aspect of my class.	20.7	37.8	26.8	7.3	4.9	1.2
25.	(S)	Reading is an important aspect of learning communication.	13.0	19.6	36.2	22.3	6.0	1.7
	(T)	Reading is an important aspect of teaching communication in my class.	4.9	18.3	45.1	17.1	9.8	2.4
30.	(S)	Learning about non-verbal cues is important for communication.	14.6	23.3	30.9	21.9	6.6	1.3
	(T)	Non-verbal cues are important aspects of teaching communication in my class.	3.7	17.1	41.5	17.1	12.2	7.3
31.	(S)	Learning correct pronunciation is important for communication.	29.2	37.5	24.6	5.0	1.7	0.3
	(T)	Pronunciation is an important aspect of teaching communication in my class.	4.9	26.8	36.6	18.3	7.3	4.9
35.	(S)	Writing is an important aspect of learning communication.	1.3	23.6	36.5	21.9	3.0	2.0
	(T)	Writing is an important aspect of teaching communication in my class.	8.5	32.9	32.9	14.6	9.8	1.2

Note: In some of the items, total percentages do not add up to 100%. This is because some subjects did not respond to all of the items.

covered areas in educational settings in Japan, and should be investigated further.

Table 2: Differences between Native English Speaking Teachers and Japanese Teachers

	Native *M (SD)*	Japanese *M (SD)*	*t*	*p*
6. Functions	2.43 (1.32)	3.20 (1.35)	-2.60	*
12. Speaking	1.46 (0.74)	2.88 (1.27)	-6.16	***
15. Grammar	3.75 (1.19)	3.50 (1.28)	0.90	
19. Listening	1.71 (0.68)	2.33 (1.19)	-2.89	**
23. Cultural differences	2.12 (0.78)	2.70 (1.34)	-2.38	*
25. Reading	3.25 (0.93)	3.08 (1.23)	0.72	
30. Non-verbal cues	2.76 (0.92)	4.05 (1.18)	-5.52	***
31. Pronunciation	2.85 (0.88)	3.38 (1.39)	-2.02	*
35. Writing	3.05 (0.97)	2.70 (1.29)	1.35	

***$p<0.001$, **$p<0.01$, *$p<0.05$

Beliefs about Goals and Objectives

Students and teachers displayed similar beliefs about the goals and objectives of English learning and teaching (Table 3). Most students believed that learning to respond to each other and to interact with their teachers are necessary (Items 7 and 11). A majority also believed that knowledge of Western-style learning strategies and communication styles is important (Item 17). Furthermore, nearly two thirds of the students believed that teachers should not focus on grammar (Item 22). Likewise, teachers tended to think that students should learn to respond to each other, have more interaction with their teachers, and adopt different learning strategies and communication styles. In addition, 59.8% of the teachers believed that they do not focus only on teaching grammar.

On the other hand student beliefs were quite different from those of the teachers for six items. More than 67% of the students thought that their teachers should ask them what they want to learn in class.

Table 3: Beliefs about Goals and Objectives

			strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	slightly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
1.	(S)	Teachers should let students decide what they want to do in class.	10.6	21.9	34.6	21.3	8.0	3.0
	(T)	I often let students decide what they want to do in class.	6.1	15.9	24.4	15.9	25.9	11.0
2.	(S)	It is necessary to translate English sentences into Japanese to check my reading comprehension.	10.0	29.9	27.9	19.3	7.6	4.3
	(T)	Translation into Japanese is an effective way to evaluate reading comprehension skills.	1.2	17.1	30.5	9.8	25.6	12.2
3.	(S)	It is necessary for English to be a required course at university level in Japan.	32.9	29.6	17.3	13.0	4.7	2.3
	(T)	It is necessary for English to be a required course at university level in Japan.	20.7	25.6	11.0	9.8	23.2	8.5
7.	(S)	Responding to each other is an important part of communication.	25.6	32.2	27.2	11.0	2.3	1.7
	(T)	I teach my students that responding to each other is an important part of communication.	42.7	36.6	13.4	2.4	3.7	0.0
8.	(S)	"Interaction " and "communication" mean the same thing.	46.5	42.5	8.3	1.3	0.3	1.0
	(T)	"Interaction " and "communication" mean the same thing.	2.4	13.4	17.1	18.3	34.1	14.6
9.	(S)	I don't want my teacher to correct my grammatical mistakes.	0.7	1.3	9.6	26.2	32.9	29.2
	(T)	I seldom correct my students' grammatical mistakes.	1.2	13.4	29.3	25.6	25.6	3.7
10.	(S)	Teachers should put more emphasis on speaking and listening rather than writing and reading.	40.2	30.2	18.9	7.0	3.0	0.7
	(T)	I put more emphasis on speaking and listening than writing and reading.	13.4	31.7	14.6	17.1	14.6	4.9
11.	(S)	I want to interact with my teacher in English.	20.9	22.9	30.9	17.9	5.0	2.0
	(T)	Japanese students in the English classroom need to be taught to interact with the teacher.	29.3	32.9	22.0	8.5	7.3	0.0
17.	(S)	It is important to learn different learning strategies such as positive participation.	22.6	30.6	30.6	12.0	3.0	1.3
	(T)	It is important to teach different learning strategies such as positive participation.	25.6	48.8	20.7	2.4	0.0	0.0
21.	(S)	I want to learn communication skills such as interrupting and turn-taking.	11.3	20.6	34.6	23.3	6.3	2.3
	(T)	Japanese students need to learn communication skills such as interrupting and turn-taking.	12.2	41.5	31.7	6.1	6.1	0.0
22.	(S)	Teachers should not focus on teaching grammar.	11.3	18.9	28.9	22.9	11.6	5.0
	(T)	I don't focus on teaching grammar.	9.8	29.3	20.7	23.2	8.5	7.3

Note: In some of the items, total percentages do not add up to 100%. This is because some subjects did not respond to all of the items.

However, the teachers were divided about who should decide class objectives (Item 1). Furthermore, more than 67% of the students thought that Japanese translation is necessary for English reading comprehension, whereas nearly half (47.6%) of the teachers were against the use of translation for evaluating reading comprehension (Item 2). Most students felt that English should be a required course at the university level, whereas the teachers' beliefs were divided (Item 3). While 46.3% of the teachers agreed with this, 31.7% disagreed either strongly or moderately. Additionally, a majority of the students tended to believe that "interaction" and "communication" are the same or have quite similar meanings (Item 8) whereas 67% of the teachers disagreed. Moreover, the teachers' ideas about correcting grammatical mistakes were different from those of students (Item 9). While 88% of the students indicated that they wanted their teachers to correct their grammar mistakes, 14.6% of the teachers indicated that they seldom correct their students' mistakes, with only 54.9% correcting mistakes. Furthermore, while nearly 90% of the students indicated that teachers should put more emphasis on listening and speaking (Item 10), the percentage of teachers who actually emphasized these areas more than reading and writing was much lower, at 59.7%. This final point was perhaps related to the instructional areas of the teacher, since the number who were teaching reading and writing combined (n=117) was a little greater than those who were teaching listening and speaking (n=107).

Beliefs about Instructional Styles and Methods

As shown in Table 4, there were similarities and differences between student beliefs and teacher beliefs regarding instructional styles. Both students and teachers agreed that group work and paired activities are appropriate for Japanese students. For Items 14 and 27, a number of students and teachers supported the ideas that working in a group is more effective than individual work and that paired activities are a productive use of class time. Many in both groups indicated that some knowledge of the Japanese language is needed for teachers to analyze students' mistakes and to explain grammar points (Items 33 and 36). A majority of both groups disagreed with the idea of game-oriented activities being childish, although a larger percentage of students (84.3%) than teachers (67%) disagreed with the idea.

While a large majority of the teachers (92.7%) wanted feedback on how their students feel about their class, only 3.7 % of the students strongly agreed that they want to talk to their teachers about their feelings and 8.6% moderately agreed with this idea (Item 13). In addition a high percentage of students (80.4%) supported the idea that listening

Table 4: Beliefs about Instructional Styles and Methods

			strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	slightly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
13.	(S)	I want to talk to my teacher how I feel about our class.	3.7	8.6	27.9	43.9	11.6	4.0
	(T)	I always want to know how students feel about my class.	23.2	39.0	30.5	7.3	0.0	0.0
14.	(S)	Working in a group is more effective than individual work to improve my English proficiency.	6.0	24.9	32.2	28.2	6.6	2.0
	(T)	Working in a group is more effective than individual work for Japanese students to improve their proficiency in English.	14.6	30.5	22.0	15.9	7.3	7.3
16.	(S)	Game-oriented activities are childish for university level students.	1.0	4.7	10.0	29.2	31.2	23.9
	(T)	Game-oriented activities are childish for university level students.	3.7	13.4	14.6	8.5	32.9	25.6
27.	(S)	Paired activities are productive uses of language class time.	10.0	29.6	32.6	21.9	4.0	0.7
	(T)	Paired activities are productive uses of language class time.	20.7	37.8	28.0	1.2	4.9	6.1
28.	(S)	Listening to a lecture about a certain topic is an effective way of learning English.	12.3	29.9	38.2	14.0	4.0	0.3
	(T)	Giving a lecture about a certain topic is an effective way of teaching English to Japanese students.	2.4	13.4	29.3	20.7	24.4	8.5
33.	(S)	It is necessary for foreign teachers to have knowledge of the Japanese language to analyze students' mistakes.	14.3	29.9	33.2	14.0	4.7	2.7
	(T)	In teaching Japanese students, knowledge of the Japanese language is necessary to analyze students' mistakes.	11.0	18.3	35.4	13.4	14.6	6.1
36.	(S)	I want my teacher to explain grammar points in Japanese.	16.3	36.9	25.6	14.3	4.0	1.7
	(T)	Knowledge of the Japanese language is useful in explaining grammar points.	17.1	36.6	28.0	9.8	4.9	2.4

Note: In some of the items, total percentages do not add up to 100%. This is because some subjects did not respond to all of the items.

to a lecture is an effective way of learning English, whereas the teachers' beliefs about this varied. Fewer than half of the teachers saw lectures as an effective means of teaching English and the percentage of teachers who either strongly or moderately agreed with this item was low (2.4% and 13.4% respectively).

Beliefs about Teaching Materials

Students and teachers also held different opinions regarding appropriate topics for teaching materials (Table 5). More than 95% of the students supported the idea that the most appropriate topics for learning English deal with everyday life (Item 29). However only 1.2% of the teachers strongly agreed, 20.7% moderately agreed, and 40.2% slightly agreed with this item and 36.7% held negative attitudes toward this choice of topic. Another discrepancy concerned learning and teaching about social issues (Item 4). More than 66% of the students agreed that learning about social issues is the most appropriate way to study English, whereas only 48.8% of the teachers held positive attitudes toward this idea. More than 50% of the teachers felt negatively about this idea.

There were also some differences in beliefs about the nature of appropriate teaching material. A high percentage of students (88.1%) indicated that course material should be up to date (Item 20), and 88.3% thought that their level of English ability should be the most important consideration when selecting material (Item 34). On the other hand, only 56.2% of the teachers thought that up-to-date course material is important, while 42.6% disagreed. However nearly 77% of the teachers agreed that the ability of the students should be the most important consideration in selecting course material.

Beliefs about Cultural Matters

As shown in Table 6, the answers of the students and teachers were quite similar for questionnaire items relating to Japanese culture. There were similar responses with regard to the motivation of Japanese students (Item 5): 42.8% of the students and 45.1% of the teachers agreed that Japanese students are motivated to study English. Slightly more teachers (37.6%) than students (24.6%) thought that Japanese students can be impolite because they sometimes overgeneralize Western culture (Item 18), although a majority of students and teachers tended to disagree with this assertion. Both students and teachers tended to think that the teacher's authority is respected in the Japanese classroom (Item 26). Both groups tended to believe that it is necessary for foreign teach-

Table 5: Beliefs about Teaching Materials

			strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	slightly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
4.	(S)	Studying about social issues is the most appropriate way to learn English.	10.6	24.6	31.2	21.3	6.6	5.3
	(T)	Teaching about social issues is the most appropriate way to teach English to Japanese students.	3.7	8.5	36.6	25.6	23.2	2.4
20.	(S)	The most appropriate materials are those that are up to date.	29.9	33.9	24.3	8.0	2.0	0.7
	(T)	In choosing teaching materials, the most important consideration is that they are up to date.	3.7	15.9	36.6	19.5	20.7	2.4
29.	(S)	The most appropriate topics in learning English are those dealing with everyday life.	38.5	39.2	17.9	2.3	0.3	0.3
	(T)	The most appropriate topics for college students in Japan are those dealing with everyday life.	1.2	20.7	40.2	15.9	17.1	3.7
34.	(S)	When choosing materials, the level of English is the most important consideration for teachers.	25.9	35.2	27.2	8.0	1.3	1.0
	(T)	When choosing teaching materials, the level of English is the most important.	8.5	35.4	32.9	17.1	6.1	0.0

Note: In some of the items, total percentages do not add up to 100%. This is because some subjects did not respond to all of the items.

ers to know Japanese culture when interacting with Japanese students (Item 32), but more teachers (92.7 %) tended to agree with this statement than did students (81.1%) and the teachers showed a stronger degree of agreement. Furthermore, more than half of both groups (62.2% of the teachers and 64.8% of the students) thought that student reticence is a problem in class (Item 24). However, the wording of the statements on the two questionnaires was slightly different so direct comparison is difficult.

Discussion

This study has identified some discrepancies between Japanese EFL learner and teacher beliefs about English language learning and teaching. A number of students reported that they preferred traditional aspects of language instruction, while the teachers preferred more recent instructional trends. As to what constitutes a traditional approach to language instruction, Renandya, Lim, Leong & Jacobs (1999) have analyzed the differences between the traditional paradigm and the current communicative paradigm in ELT methodology through a review of the work of Larsen-Freeman (1998), Genesee and Upshur (1996), Nunan (1988), Richards and Rodgers (1986), and Tudor (1996). According to Renandya et al. (1999), the traditional paradigm can be characterized by the following eight characteristics: (a) focus on language, (b) teacher-centeredness, (c) isolated skills, (d) focus on accuracy, (e) discrete point tests, (f) traditional tests, (g) emphasis on product, and (h) individual learning. In contrast, the current communicative paradigm is represented by a different set of characteristics: (a) focus on communication, (b) learner-centeredness, (c) integrated skills, (d) focus on fluency, (e) holistic tests, (f) authentic assessment, (g) emphasis on process, and (h) cooperative learning.

One of the attitudinal gaps identified between teachers and students concerned pronunciation (Table 1, Item 31). The students were quite interested in learning correct pronunciation; however the teachers reported that pronunciation is not strongly emphasized in their classrooms. Perhaps this is because current trends in EFL education focus on the development of communicative competence through integrated skills rather than through the teaching of isolated skills such as pronunciation. Unlike the grammar-translation and audiolingual methods prevalent some decades ago, one of the most important things in communicative language learning and teaching is to get one's message across. In communication a smooth transaction is valued more than linguistic or pronunciation accuracy. However, since students seem to consider pronunciation important, teachers should determine whether

Table 6: Beliefs about Cultural Matters

			strongly agree	agree	slightly agree	slightly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
5.	(S)	In general, Japanese students are motivated in studying English.	4.0	13.6	25.2	33.6	16.9	6.6
	(T)	In general, Japanese students are motivated in studying English.	1.2	12.2	31.7	28.0	19.5	4.9
18.	(S)	Students can be impolite to teachers at times because they sometimes overgeneralize Western culture.	2.0	5.3	17.3	37.9	22.3	14.0
	(T)	Students can be impolite to teachers at times because they sometimes overgeneralize Western culture.	6.1	12.2	19.3	20.7	22.0	6.1
24.	(S)	I do not care about students' reticence.	4.0	9.3	20.6	34.2	15.0	15.6
	(T)	Students' reticence is not a problem for me in teaching them.	0.0	12.2	23.2	37.8	15.9	8.5
26.	(S)	The teachers' authority is respected in the classroom.	10.0	40.9	37.2	9.0	1.7	0.0
	(T)	The teachers' authority is respected in the classroom.	9.8	39.0	32.9	11.0	6.1	0.0
32.	(S)	It is necessary for foreign teachers to know about Japanese culture when interacting with Japanese students.	19.9	29.6	31.6	12.3	4.3	1.0
	(T)	It is necessary for foreign teachers to know about Japanese culture when interacting with Japanese students.	30.5	47.6	14.6	4.9	2.4	0.0

Note: In some of the items, total percentages do not add up to 100%. This is because some subjects did not respond to all of the items.

their students want pronunciation practice, and if there are reasons why pronunciation is not emphasized in class, these reasons should be explained. For example some teachers might explain that fluency is more important than linguistic accuracy.

Item 1, *I often let students decide what they want to do in class* (Table 3), indicated the teachers' preference for a learner-centered approach where students determine class objectives. In addition many teachers wanted to know their students' reactions to their class (Table 4, Item 13). On the other hand nearly 60% of the students expressed negative attitudes toward the statement *I want to talk to my teacher about how I feel about our class.*

Although lectures are seldom delivered in EFL classrooms except in English for Academic Purposes or other content-based classes, about three-fourths of the students believed that listening to a lecture is an effective way of learning English. Students may believe that listening to a lecture improves their listening comprehension skills provided that the lecture content and level of English are appropriate. In addition, student participation is not required during lectures so some students may feel less anxiety. However the teachers' reactions to giving lectures were diverse (Table 4, Item 28).

Most students rely on translation for reading comprehension and a majority of the students thought that translation into Japanese is necessary. This implies that they expect their teachers to use grammar-translation pedagogy since in many high school classrooms reading is taught through *yakudoku*, an instructional style characterized by Japanese translation with grammar instruction as a secondary focus (Gorsuch, 1998). Thus English reading comprehension is almost equivalent to translation into Japanese. Many students in this study experienced the *yakudoku* learning style in high school and this may have made them feel secure when using Japanese translation to comprehend reading materials. On the other hand, although the wording of the questionnaire item was slightly different, the teachers' attitudes toward the use of translation were both positive and negative. Although this might partially be due to differences between native English speaking teachers and Japanese teachers of English, most teachers expressed negative attitudes toward the use of translation, especially for assessing students' reading comprehension abilities.

In addition to student and teacher differences regarding instructional style, another important difference concerned making English a required subject (Table 3, Item 3). About 80% of the students strongly, moderately, or slightly agreed with the idea that English should be a required course at university level in Japan. This may be because En-

glish is closely linked to the concept of internationalization. Internationalization was a buzzword in every educational institution in Japan throughout the 1990s and EFL students may assume that in order to become a *kokusaijin* (an internationally-minded person), they should have a good command of English. However, it has been noted that foreign language education at the secondary school level is most likely to affect students' understanding of internationalization (Parmenter, 1999) and even today only a few Japanese students have a chance to learn other languages prior to entering university. As of 1997, only 5% of senior high schools offered Chinese, 1.9% Korean, 3.5% French, and 1% German (Shimizu, 1999). It is thus quite natural for Japanese students to believe that English should be a required subject rather than other foreign languages.

While more than half of the teachers in this study supported the idea of English as a required subject, 42% held negative attitudes toward this notion. In the mid-1990s many Japanese colleges and universities reformed their curriculum for general education using two key words: internationalization and computerization. Although many English teachers are aware that English is an important means of communication in the international community as well as in cyberspace, perhaps those who hold negative attitudes towards making English compulsory believe that English is not the only language for internationalization and the Internet. Another consideration is that some teachers may feel that if English were an elective subject, only highly motivated students would enroll in class.

Conclusion

This exploratory study investigated university student and teacher beliefs about English learning and teaching in Japan. It was found that a number of students preferred instructional methods characterizing more traditional types of ESL/EFL pedagogy such as learning isolated skills, focusing on accuracy, and learning through a teacher-centered approach. Since a majority of the students believed that learning correct pronunciation is important for communication, translation is needed for reading comprehension, and listening to lectures is an effective way of learning English. On the other hand, the teachers' instructional style preference has shifted to a more communicative paradigm, including a focus on communication, learner-centered activities, integrated skills, and a focus on fluency rather than accuracy. Many teachers let their students decide what to study in class, do not emphasize teaching pronunciation, and disagree with the idea that giving lectures is an effective way of teaching English. Finally, the students' posi-

tive reaction to making English compulsory in universities is suggested to be based on or at least reinforced by the popular Japanese belief that *kokusaijin* (internationally-minded people) should be able to communicate in English because English is an international language.

It is very important for teachers to be aware that some of their students may not be used to or may not prefer the instructional styles they use in class. As mentioned, quite a number of students indicated a strong preference for conservative teaching and learning styles. When students enter university and encounter new teaching and learning styles, they may become anxious. Teachers can play an important part in easing their students' anxiety by explaining how the students can learn more effectively with the new approaches. Alternatively, teachers may also consider modifying their style to remove or lessen student anxiety.

Regarding future directions for research, this study has only identified some beliefs. Most of the questionnaire items used here could be categorized as Wenden's "theorizing" (1986). Further studies should therefore be conducted to examine Wenden's other types of beliefs, for example, "diagnosing" (language proficiency) and "evaluating" (outcome of strategies). In addition, future studies should use other types of questionnaire formats. Open-ended types of questionnaires, for instance, would elicit more authentic and more detailed beliefs.

Teachers should also consider how to integrate their students' beliefs into classroom practice. The results of this study provide some pedagogical suggestions for classroom instruction and curriculum design. As shown, students' beliefs about how they should approach English learning may differ from what teachers and researchers believe. In order for students to gain maximum benefit from the methods that their teachers use, constant assessment of learner beliefs is needed to evaluate and adjust current theories and practice.

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What Counts in the Acquisition and Attrition of Numeral Classifiers?

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This study compares second language (L2) acquisition and attrition sequences of the syntax and semantics of numeral classifier systems in light of considerations of markedness, frequency, and the regression hypothesis. In classifier data elicited from English-speaking adult learners and attriters of two East Asia languages, Japanese and Chinese, we find in the attrition of both languages, in both syntax and semantics, a regression of the acquisition sequence. An implicational semantic scale, the Numeral Classifer Accessibility Hierarchy, coinciding closely with the relative frequencies of the classifiers in input, appears to provide a path of least resistance for the learning and the loss of the semantic systems.

本研究では、有標性、頻度、回帰仮説の観点から、助数詞・分類辞を取り上げ、統語的・意味的に第二言語習得・喪失の順序を考察した。二種類の言語（日本語・中国語）について、成人の言語学習者・喪失者から助数詞・分類辞のデータを収集し、二種類の言語の喪失、統語的・意味的習得と喪失、習得順位について考察した。　含意の意味的スケール、助数詞・分類辞の容認可能性の階層、インプットに現れる助数詞・分類辞の頻度は互いに関係しており、阻害が最小になるような習得過程や、言語喪失過程を示唆していることが考えられる。

This paper examines interlanguage classifier systems, an aspect of second language (L2) semantics and lexicon that has scarcely been touched upon in previous research. The focus is on the accessibility of numeral classifiers in the learning and subsequent forgetting of two East Asian languages by English-speaking adults. The aims of the investigation are (a) to determine the stages of classifier syntax in learning and loss, (b) to examine semantic accessibility in classifier systems in learning and loss, and (c) to explain the findings in light of considerations of markedness, frequency, and the regression hypothesis. A comparison of data from two groups within the same population who learned unrelated languages, Japanese or Chi-

nese, increases the transparency of the window that is provided into universals in second language progression and regression.

Numeral Classifier Systems

The languages of the world can be divided into two groups with regard to numeral classifiers: those that have classifiers, such as the majority of languages in East and Southeast Asia, and those that do not, such as most European languages, including English (Allan, 1977). In Japanese and Chinese the numeral classifiers, or "counters" as they are also called, are morphemes which occur adjacent to numerals and categorize the noun referent based on semantic features such as animacy, shape, size, arrangement, and function. A counter is obligatory in a noun phrase containing a numeral, and, as shown in the following examples, occurs between the number and the noun referent:

(1)	English	three			books
(2)	Japanese	*san*	*satu*	*no*	*hon*
		(three	classifier	poss. part.	book)
(3)	Mandarin	*san*	*ben*		*shu*
		(three	classifier		book)

There are scores of such counters in both Japanese and Chinese which co-occur only with nouns that share the semantic feature specified by that classifier. In the schematic organizations of the Japanese and Mandarin classifier systems shown in Appendix I, we include the particular classifiers that are examined in the present study. While these two systems have many similarities, they do differ in the details of the semantic classifications as well as in the amount of variability allowed in reference. Chinese noun classes are more variable than those in Japanese, with a greater tendency for fuzzy sets that are often mutually overlapping.

The research on the semantics, frequency, and historical development of classifiers in many languages has established an implicational scale of the semantic features of classification (Craig, 1986). This scale is derived from cross-linguistic investigations such as Adams and Conklin's (1973) study of the classifier inventories of 37 Asian languages. This study reports that animacy, in the form of a human/non-human distinction or an animate/inanimate distinction, is always encoded. The three basic shape categories of long, round, and flat usually appear also. Secondary parameters, such as rigidity and size, are often found but usually in combination with the primary parameters

instead of serving as the sole basis for classification. Functional parameters such as tools, footwear, and written materials also appear frequently, but, unlike the parameters of shape and animacy, are quite language-specific, reflecting the interests of members of the particular culture in which the language is spoken. The points on the implicational scale of semantic features, the Numeral Classifier Accessibility Hierarchy (NCAH), are ordered as follows:

Animate human > Animate non human > Shape > Function

In applying this hierarchy of markedness to the issues raised in the present study, we hypothesize that the accessibility of classifiers in acquisition and attrition follows the order of this implicational scale. That is, we expect the least marked distinction, animate: human, to be the earliest to appear and the longest to be retained, and the distinction at the end of the scale, function, to be the last to appear and the earliest to be lost after the onset of attrition.

Acquisition of Numeral Classifiers

A number of first language (L1) studies have examined the acquisition of numeral classifiers by children in several Asian languages: Japanese (Clancy, 1986; Matsumoto, 1985; Sanches, 1977), Chinese (Erbaugh, 1986; Hu, 1993; Ken, 1991), Garo (Burling, 1973), and Thai (Carpenter, 1991; Gandour, Petty, Dardarananda, Dechongkit & Mukangoen, 1984). In Japanese the first two classifiers learned are the general inanimate (*tu*), and the human classifier (*nin*), followed by the counters for flat, thin objects (*mai*), small animals (*hiki*), long slender objects (*hon*), small three-dimensional objects (*ko*), and vehicles (*dai*) (Sanches, 1977; Matsumoto, 1985; Downing, 1996). After these basic forms are acquired, Sanches (1977) reports the acquisition of the classifiers for books (*satu*) and for birds and rabbits (*wa*), followed by the counters for buildings (*ken*) and small boats (*soo*). For Chinese, Hu (1993) found that small children acquire the Chinese classifiers denoting animacy earlier than classifiers denoting shape and function, as predicted by considerations of markedness and language universals. In fact, the L1 Chinese children learned to draw a distinction between animates and inanimates as early as three years of age. Hu also reported that the children tended to use this general classifier more than specific ones.

In their comparative study of L1 Japanese and Chinese classifiers, Uchida and Imai (in press) outline three stages of acquisition. In the first, children fail to supply a classifier. In the second, they become aware of the grammatical role of classifiers but still lack the knowl-

edge to differentiate usage of the classifiers, which results in rampant overgeneralization. Gradually the children proceed to the third stage in which the semantic rules for each classifier are sorted out.

The present line of inquiry (Hansen & Davies, 1998; Chen, 1999; Hansen & Chen, 1999) is the first to investigate the accessibility of numeral classifiers in L2 learning and loss in adults.

The Regression Hypothesis

Since the study of language attrition is relatively recent (for overviews of this sub-field of applied linguistics, see de Bot & Weltens, 1995; Hansen & Reetz-Kurashige, 1999; Hansen, 2000a, 2000b, in press), much more is known about the sequences of language learning than of language loss. In the second language acquisition field, interlanguage, the language of L2 learners, is seen as a series of stages that all learners pass through in acquiring a language. In language attrition, the regression hypothesis is the idea that, in losing a language, attriters will follow an order opposite to the stages of acquisition. Dating back to Jakobson (1968), the hypothesis describes the path of language loss as the mirror opposite of acquisition, with the last learned being the first forgotten, the first learned being the longest retained (for a review of regression theory, see de Bot & Weltens, 1991).

In the language attrition literature the regression hypothesis has been supported in a general sense at the inter-linguistic skills level: receptive skills precede productive skills in acquisition and the reverse holds true for attrition. At the intra-linguistic level (within morphology, syntax, semantics, and the lexicon), however, documenting that the stages of development are reversed in attrition is more difficult. Tracking both acquisition and attrition is time consuming and a universal or predictable developmental ladder has been established for only a limited number of linguistic structures. However, a number of studies have demonstrated through testing that the regression hypothesis holds (Cohen, 1975; Berman & Olshtain, 1983; Olshtain, 1989; Hansen, 1999). In a longitudinal study of the acquisition and attrition of negation in Hindi-Urdu by two American children, Hansen (1980, p. 169) concludes that "the forgetting data from both children could be interpreted as a recapitulation in reverse of the acquisitional sequence." Kuhberg's (1992, p. 138) longitudinal L2 acquisition and attrition study of three Turkish children's German found that "attrition was largely a mirror image of acquisition: First learned, basic syntactic patterns were retained longest." As Yoshitomi (1992, p. 295) cautions, however, "the generalizability of reverse order [the regression hypothesis] at the intra-skills level is limited because the hypothesis has been tested on only

a limited number of specific syntactic structures."

Research Focus

In examining the acquisition and attrition accessibility of numeral classifier systems, the present study looks for evidence of regression in semantics and the lexicon as well as syntax. The research questions are:

1. What are the stages in the learning and loss of numeral classifier syntax in Japanese and Chinese by English-speaking adults?
2. What are the sequences of semantic accessibility?
3. To what extent are the accessibility sequences of the numeral classifiers explained by considerations of language universals and frequency in input?
4. Does classifier accessibility in attrition follow a reverse order to that of acquisition?

Method

Subjects and Data Collection

The subjects included two groups of learners and attriters from the same population. They were native speakers of English in the western United States who, as young adults, had worked (or, in the case of the learners, were working) as full-time missionaries in Japan or Taiwan. Immersed in the culture of their target language, Japanese or Mandarin Chinese, they had acquired (or were acquiring) fluent competence in the spoken language through daily interaction with native speakers. The length of time spent in the target culture by the subjects varied from as little as 18 months (for females over the past two decades) to as long as three years (for males before 1959). Upon completion of their missions, the attriters (those who were or would be losing their L2) returned to an English environment in the western United States where L2 exposure was discontinued or greatly reduced.

The L2 Japanese learner/attriter group consisted of 204 learners (153 male, 51 female), 189 attriters (138 male and 54 female), and a control group of 14 native speakers of Japanese. The learners in Japan were selected randomly at missionary conferences attended by all missionaries serving in a particular area. The data were collected individually from each subject in a classroom. The attriters back in the western United States were found through lists of returned missionary organizations which included virtually all who had served during particular times in particular areas of Japan, and also by word of mouth from

other missionaries. Ninety-two percent of those contacted agreed to participate in the data elicitation, which was done in their home, office, or in an office on a university campus. Of the 14 native speakers of Japanese, seven were students at Brigham Young University, Hawaii. They completed the data elicitation in a university office. The remaining seven were university students in Japan in the same age range, who were met in their residences. Since the data from the native speaker subgroups did not differ statistically, they were combined for the analyses.

The L2 Mandarin learner/attriter group consisted of 167 learners (140 male, 27 female), 143 attriters (109 male, 34 female), and a control group of 35 native speakers of Mandarin. The learners in Taiwan were selected randomly at missionary conferences attended by all missionaries serving in a particular area. The data were collected individually from each subject in a classroom. The attriters in the United States were located through organizations for returned missionaries or from an internet site for Chinese-speaking returned missionaries, and were interviewed by telephone. The 35 native Mandarin speakers were Taiwanese students at Brigham Young University, Hawaii and were met in their homes or in a classroom on the university campus.

Elicitation Instruments

The instrument administered to the L2 Japanese learners/attriters consisted of a set of 24 line drawings, each displaying between one and five exemplars of the pictured object on a 4" x 6" card (see Appendix II, Items 1 to 24). Presented in two alternating randomized orders, there were two items for each of the following twelve classifiers: humans (*nin*), small animals (*hiki*), pieces of paper/leaves (*mai*), pens/tulips (*hon*), small round pieces of candy (*ko*), books (*satu*), vehicles (*dai*), buildings (*ken*), birds (*wa*), pairs of footwear (*soku*), large animals (*too*), and letters (*tuu*). Each subject was given the cards and asked to tell the number of items pictured. The responses were recorded on an answer sheet by the investigator.

In the Chinese data collection sessions, one of three tasks completed was a modified version of the Japanese instrument described above.[1] In replicating the Japanese elicitation task for the Chinese study, we found that for three of the 12 Japanese counters (*mai, hon, hiki*) the exemplar pairs elicited two different classifiers from native speakers of Mandarin. For example leaves and pieces of paper, which had been used to elicit the single classifier, *mai*, in Japanese, fell into two separate semantic categories in Mandarin, *pin* being used for the classification of leaves; *zhang* for paper. In these three cases of semantic split of

the Japanese categories, the new classifications were added to the Chinese version of the task, with a pair of exemplars included for each (the additional items are shown in Appendix II, Items 25 to 30). The Mandarin instrument therefore consisted of 30 line drawings (rather than 24 as for the Japanese), two items for each of the following fifteen classifiers: humans (*ge, wei, dui)* books (*ben*), pieces of paper (*zhang*), small animals (*zhi*), large animals (*tao, zhi*), birds (*zhi*), pencils/pens (*he, zhi*), fish (*taio*), letters (*feng*), pairs of footwear (*shuan*), vehicles (*liang, tai, bu*), buildings (*jian, don, zou*), small round pieces of candy (*ke, li*), flowers (*duo*), and leaves (*pin*). The drawings were presented on a picture sheet mailed or faxed to the subjects. In the telephone interview the learners/attriters were required to orally specify the number of items shown in each drawing. Again, the responses were recorded on an answer sheet by the investigator.

Calculating Suppliance

Correct classifier suppliance in both the Japanese and Chinese data was determined by the responses of the native speaking control groups. The patterns of correct suppliance between the two languages vary because of basic differences in their systems of classification. The semantic criteria for determining Mandarin classifier classes appear to be more complex than in Japanese and the relations among different classifier categories in Mandarin are more complicated and overlapping. One outcome of the scoring procedures based on these differences is the appearance of higher correct suppliance of classifiers by the Mandarin learners and attriters than by the Japanese. Therefore, because of the language-specific scoring methods used, and in light of Uchida and Imai's (in press) finding that native Japanese children learn the Japanese classifier system earlier than Chinese children learn the Chinese, we suggest a cautionary approach in comparisons made between our two data sets.

In counting suppliance in Japanese, morpho-phonemic deviations from the native-speaker norm (e.g., *ippiki* vs. *nihiki* vs. *sanbiki*) were considered correct as long as the root form of the classifier was supplied. In Japanese, even though the general classifier, *tu*, can optionally replace specific inanimate classifiers in many instances, the Japanese native speaking control group did not use *tu* in our elicitation task. It appears that the general classifier is avoided by competent adult speakers, at least in a formal situation when a more specific alternative is available and when the features involved in defining that more specific category are relevant in context. Thus for the Japanese learners/attriters in the present study, production of the specific classifier was

required to count as suppliance. In Chinese, however, the responses from the Chinese native speaker control group reveal more complicated relations among different classifier categories. The criterion we adopted for correct suppliance in Mandarin was whether a particular response had been elicited for an item from members of the control group. Thus, because of the variation in native speaker responses, three of the fifteen classifier categories are considered to have three "correct" responses, four of the categories have two acceptable answers, and the remaining eight have a single classifier that counts as correct suppliance.

Results and Discussion

Acquisition and Attrition Stages

Three stages of numeral classifier syntax can be seen in both sets of production data: (1) no classifier in the obligatory context, (2) an unmarked classifier is inserted between numeral and noun, with gradual acquisition of appropriate semantic categories, and (3) correct classifier suppliance. These stages, summarized in Table 1, are reversed in attrition.

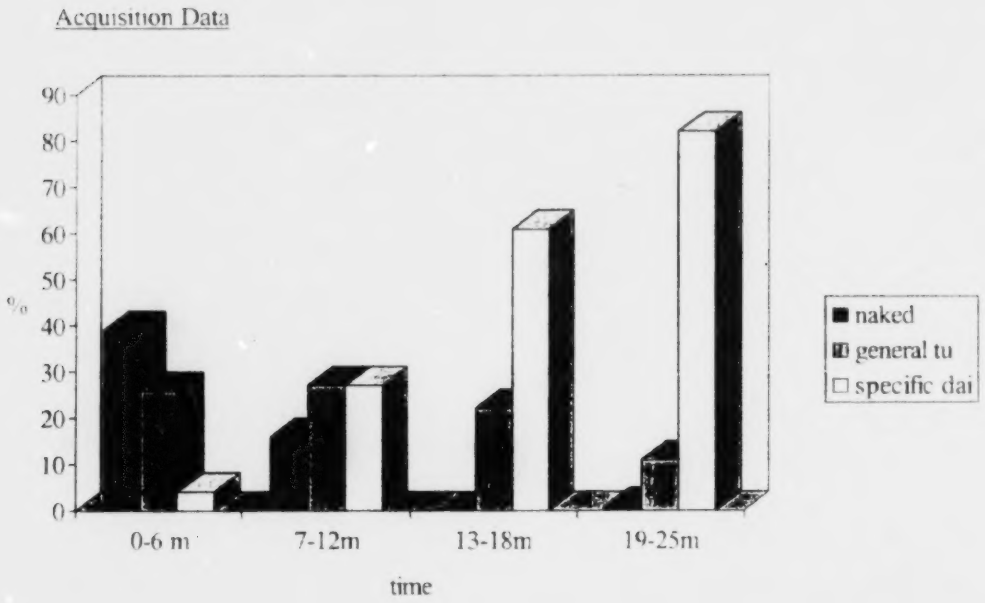
Table 1: Stages in the L2 Acquisition and Attrition of Japanese and Mandarin Numeral Classifiers

Acquisition			Japanese Counter for Five Birds/Rabbits
1.	Number Ø	(naked number)	**go* (5)
2.	Number-X	(suppliance rule learned)	**go-no, *go-hiki*
3.	Number-Specific counter	(counter specificity)	*go-wa*
Attrition			
4.	Number-Specific counter	(counter specificity)	*go-wa*
5.	Number-X	(gradual loss of specificity)	**go-no, *go-hiki*
6.	Number Ø	(naked number)	**go*

* Incorrect form

Typical examples of developing classifier choice are given in Chart 1, which shows the most frequent responses for *dai* over the time cohorts, and in Chart 2 for *wa* (since only the dominant responses are charted, not all totals reach 100%). Accessibility of the classifiers is shown for both attrition and acquisition sequences. Notice on these charts that leaving the number "naked," without a classifier, is a prominent strategy only in the early months of exposure, and becomes preponderant again as the language is lost only after many years of language disuse. Notice further that the suppliance of the general classifier, *tu*, also tends to decrease over the acquisition period as the learners gradually move closer to the native speaker norm of specific classifier use in the elicitation task. We see here in the attrition period an inverse relationship to acquisition, with an increase in general classifier use over time at the expense of the specific *dai* or *wa*.

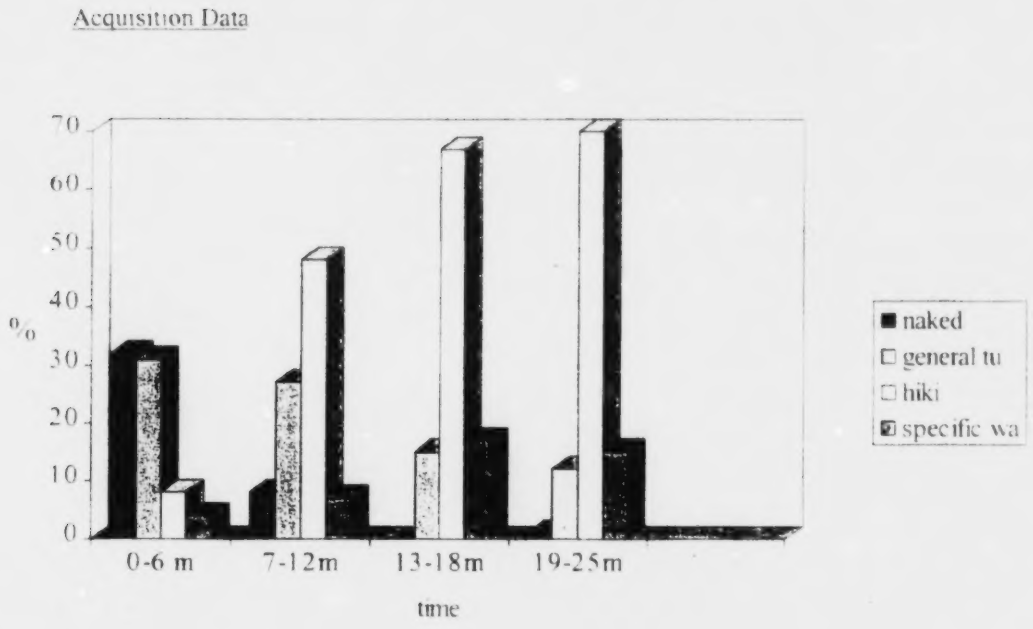
Chart 1: Classifier Suppliance for *-dai* Elicitation



In Chart 2 we see an inverse relationship to acquisition, with an increase in general classifier use over time at the expense of the specific counter *dai* or *wa*. The most extreme example of the overgeneralization characteristic of Stage Two is seen in the responses

given when counting birds because of the availability in the system of the unmarked counter for small animals, *hiki*. The overextension of *hiki* in place of the marked specific counter *wa* begins in the first months of exposure, becomes the dominant response type by the end of the first year, and continues to increase in frequency throughout the learning period. Thus we see that most of these learners fail to acquire *wa* during two years of extensive exposure, never going beyond Stage Two. Based on our control group data in which two of the fourteen native speakers also used *hiki* rather than *wa* for birds (the only category of less than unanimous NS responses in Japanese), we suspect that this may be related to an early stage in the displacement of *wa* in the language by *hiki*, just as the counter for fish, *kon*, rare in contemporary Japanese, has been virtually displaced by this unmarked, highly frequent classifier (Downing, 1996, p. 77).

Chart 2: Classifier Suppliance for -*wa* Elicitation



Sequences of Semantic Accessibility in Acquisition and Attrition

The percentages of target language responses for the elicited classifiers are provided in Table 2 for the Japanese data, and Table 3 for the Chinese data. Notice that under Time on each table, the first four columns, representing the Learning Period, indicate the percentage of correct suppliance for 6-month time cohorts over the two-year exposure period in Japan or Taiwan. On the right side of the table, representing the Attrition Period, are the percentages of correct suppliance for the attriters in time-cohorts based on the number of years since their departure from the target culture. In both the Japanese and Mandarin data sets there are wide disparities between classifiers in their levels of accessibility.

Language Universals and Markedness

The accessibility patterns in the L2 data displayed on Tables 2 and 3 show conformity to the constraints of the Numeral Classifier Accessibility Hierarchy: Animate human >Animate non human > Shape > Function. The most accessible non-general classifier category in both acquisition and attrition is the least marked position on the hierarchy, animate: human; in Japanese *nin* (with its suppletive variants, *hitori* [one person], and *futari* [two persons]), and in Chinese *ge*, *wei*, or *dui*. The classifier for small animals also makes an early appearance in interlanguage, *hiki* in Japanese, and *zhi* in Chinese. As pointed out above, a strong tendency for overgeneralization of these counters to other non human animates is most pronounced in early acquisition and late attrition. As for the next position on the markedness scale, shape, the three Japanese classifiers, *hon*, *mai*, and *ko* come in relatively early, while in Chinese the status of this larger, fuzzier set of classifiers is less clear. The counters of function included in our elicitation tasks tend to be least accessible of all, and, particularly in Japanese, in some cases do not occur in the data from the majority of learners and attriters. An exceptional case of earlier than predicted acquisition in both Japanese and Chinese, the functional counter for books, may be so because of its high frequency in missionary language.

Frequency in Input

Inasmuch as numeral classifier frequency data have not been reported for Mandarin, we focus in this section on the evidence from the Japanese data. Notice in Table 2 that the classifiers are arranged according

Table 2: Percent Suppliance of Japanese Numeral Classifiers

Classifier		Frequency[1]	Time[2]								
			Learning Period				Attrition Period				
Counter*	Item	Oral %	0-6 m	6-12 m	12-18 m	18-25 m	0-2 y	3-4 y	5-15 y	15-30 y	>30 y
		n	59	51	49	45	59	39	30	32	29
nin	human	36	63	90	96	99	96	87	73	67	49
tu	general	26	33	27	23	19	19	23	31	35	18
hiki	small animal	8	15	52	82	87	77	72	46	22	20
mai	paper, leaf	7	30	70	73	80	78	71	48	46	41
hon	pen, tulip	5	23	42	64	70	73	70	44	39	26
ko	piece of candy	3	7	49	70	77	73	66	37	13	4
satu	book	1	10	49	82	87	69	59	42	41	11
ken	building	1	1	5	39	37	31	35	21	8	11
wa	bird	1	4	7	17	14	24	18	10	12	7
dai	vehicle	>1	4	27	61	82	78	63	19	22	11
soku	pair of footwear	>1	9	8	9	17	19	15	0	0	0
too	large animal	>1	2	5	9	17	19	12	4	0	0
tuu	letter	>1	3	3	12	19	18	11	5	0	0

*The counters are listed in the order of frequency in conversational input.

1. From Downing (1984).

2. Time for learners indicates the number of months in Japan at the time of data collection; for the attriters the number of years since leaving Japan.

3. Percentages for *tu* indicate the substitution rate of this general classifier in place of the twelve more specific ones which the 24 items of the instrument were designed to elicit.

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Table 3: Percent Suppliance of Chinese Numeral Classifiers

Classifier		Time *							
		Learning Period				Attrition Period			
Counter	Item	0-6 m	7-12 m	13-18 m	9-25m	0-2 y	3-5 y	6-10 y	20-30 y
	n =	46	57	25	39	28	25	46	46
ge, wei, dui	human	99	96	98	87	100	100	100	98
zhi	small animal	59	77	88	92	84	72	60	26
tiao, zhi	fish	33	61	73	85	66	56	44	33
zhang	paper	61	88	96	97	79	58	55	33
pin	leaf	0	5	12	28	7	6	5	10
zhi, he	pen	22	61	60	77	59	54	55	26
dao	tulip	0	16	20	15	16	14	15	6
ke, li	piece of candy	5	18	26	28	11	6	7	8
ben	book	85	98	98	100	93	92	91	72
jian, don, zou	building	6	21	38	61	23	24	18	6
zhi	bird	38	61	78	86	61	50	43	18
tai, liang, bu	vehicle	6	37	72	90	50	36	22	10
shuan	pair of footwear	9	46	80	86	72	64	62	37
tao, zhi	large animal	51	63	74	86	68	50	44	13
feng	letter	13	48	74	81	79	68	37	29

* Time for learners indicates the number of months in Taiwan when data were collected; for the attriters the number of years since leaving Taiwan

to their frequency in oral conversational input, shown as a percentage in the leftmost column. The oral sample upon which the frequency count is based was collected by Downing (1984) from a number of transcribed Japanese conversations and conversational segments which involved a variety of interlocutors. We see in these frequency data that a small number of forms constitute a disproportionately large percentage of actual classifier usage. As pointed out by Downing (1984), although average Japanese native speakers may have a large inventory of forms at their command, only a small number of these commonly play a part in their everyday language use.

As seen in an overview of the acquisition and attrition data in Table 2, classifier accessibility is quite consistent with a frequency explanation. The most frequent counters, *nin* and *tu*, are acquired earliest and tend to be retained longest. The next most frequent classifiers, *hiki*, *mai*, *hon* and *ko*, pattern in a second acquisition group. Notice also that the counters which are most resistant to loss over decades of nonuse, *nin*, *tu*, *hiki*, *mai*, and *hon*, are the very five that, according to the frequency count, are most numerous in input during the learning period.

With regard to the two Japanese classifiers that were learned more quickly than Downing's (1984) frequency count or markedness considerations would have predicted, *satu* (the counter for books), and *dai* (the counter for large mechanical objects), we observe that these classifiers were highly frequent in the learning environment of the subjects. Their daily preoccupation with reading and persuading others to accept and read copies of a book of scripture undoubtedly increased their use of the classifier for books. Similarly, with bicycles as a daily means of transportation and a high level of interest of many in this 19 to 24 age group in mechanical objects such as automobiles, we suspect that the proportion of *dai* used in their conversations may have also exceeded that reported by Downing.

Regression Hypothesis

The overall percentages of accuracy for the individual classifiers are compared between the acquisition data and the attrition data for the L2 Japanese in Chart 3, and the L2 Chinese in Chart 4. Notice the similarities in the relative accessibility of the counters in the acquisition and in the attrition data. These views of our two data sets make even more clear what is also evident in Tables 2 and 3, that, in the case of numeral classifiers, those which are most accessible in learning are retained longest, and those which are less accessible are more susceptible to loss.

Chart 3: Mean Percentages of Classifier Accuracy for Learners and Attriters: Japanese

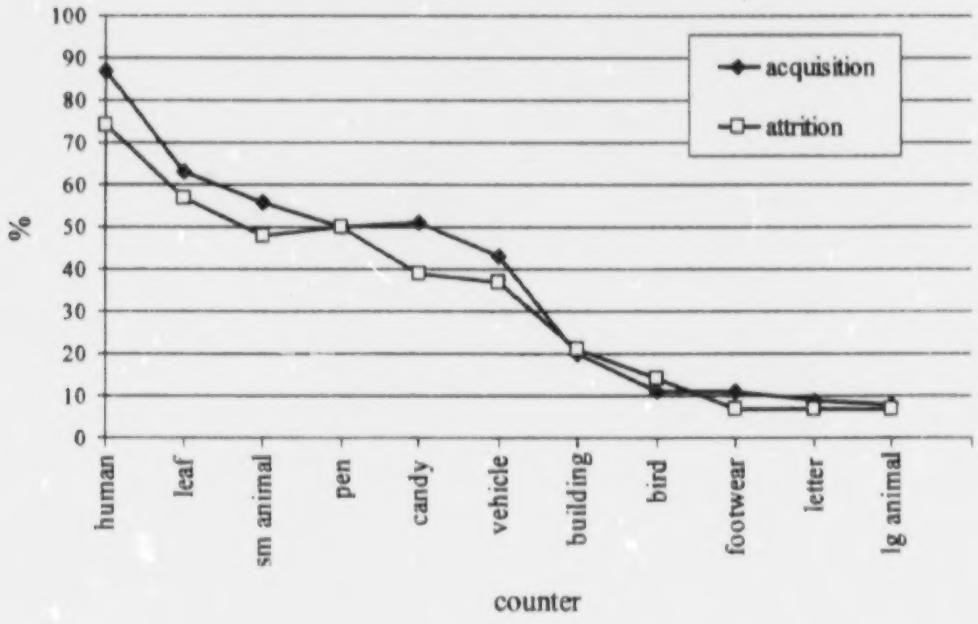
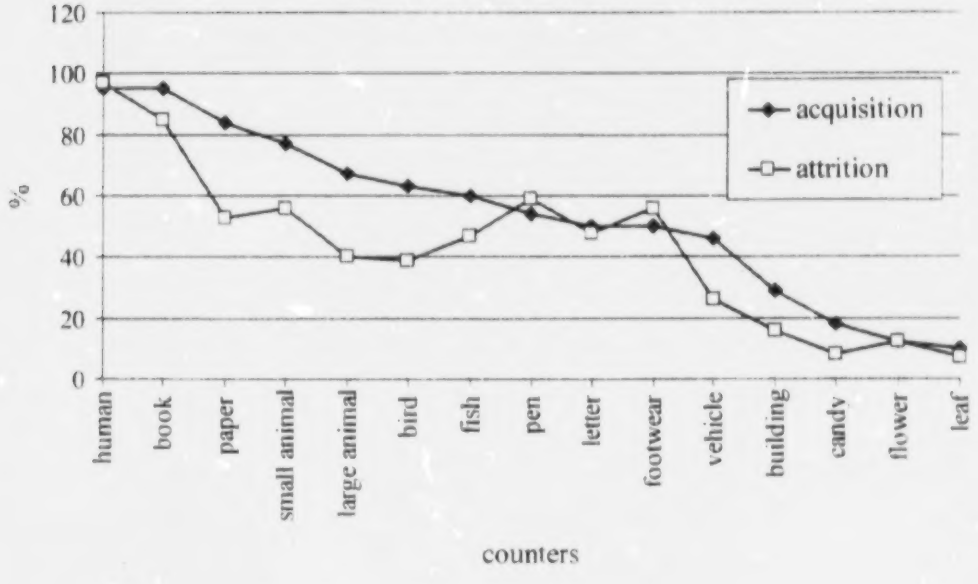


Chart 4: Mean Percentages of Classifier Accuracy for Learners and Attriters: Chinese



Conclusion

In language acquisition a hierarchy of markedness imposes a path of least resistance, a natural contour which can be modulated to some extent by structures of the L1 and L2 (Gass, 1979). In the present study the unpredicted high accessibility of the counter for "book," a highly frequent classifier in the particular population studied, suggests that input frequency can also exert enough influence to modulate the markedness scale. In the search for more definitive evidence about frequency effects we recommend that future studies compare classifier input and acquisition between L2 groups in different learning environments, such as missionaries, migrant workers, classroom learners, and the like.

An original contribution of the present study is the evidence, from both Japanese and Chinese data, for the loss of semantic categories in an inverse order to which they had been learned. Thus, if frequency in input has influenced the acquisition sequence, one might question the occurrence of the same sequence (in reverse order) in the absence of input during attrition. We suggest that stronger neural connections resulting from the high frequency of an item during the learning period may increase the durability of that item after input is discontinued. Longitudinal studies are needed in which input frequency in acquisition is controlled and the course of attrition is carefully tracked.

In the syntax of classifier acquisition, we have established that novice learners at Stage I initially produce no classifiers in their second language.[2] At Stage Two the learners become aware of the obligatory grammatical role of counters and gradually extract the semantic rules for their use. As in the case of the L1 learners observed by Uchida and Imai (in press), the learning process of the semantic criteria is long and difficult. But unlike the children in Uchida and Imai's study, in the data here the adults vary substantially in the extent to which this is accomplished. A few missionaries may learn all of the semantic categories during the first year while others, including many who are apparently effective communicators in their second language, may attain little knowledge of specific categorization throughout their entire sojourns in Japan or Taiwan.

This individual variation in L2 classifier specificity may relate to Matsumoto's (1985, p. 86) observation regarding L1 classifier acquisition: Although specific counters are not requisite to efficient communication, children are "governed by their motivation to become full-fledged native speakers expected by the language community." Although not investigated in the present study, this may also be an important social orientation for second language learners and may drive

learning from the general to the specific. In the design of future research we recommend the inclusion of affective variables to examine the possibility that learners who are socially distant (Schumann, 1976) or lack integrative motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) are the ones who continue in the use of more restrictive simplifications (general rather than specific classifiers, or frequent overgeneralization in the use of a few specific ones), features attributed by Meisel (1983) to relatively weak integration into the host society. When it comes to determining how far a learner will proceed toward acquiring and keeping native-speaker norms of specificity in a numeral classifier system, affect may count for a great deal.

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Notes

1. Analyses of data elicited from the other two instruments, numeral classifier recognition tasks, appear in Chen (1999) and Hansen & Chen (1999).
2. Elicitation data from recently arrived Chinese missionaries in Japan collected as part of a larger study (Hansen, in preparation) indicate that even learners whose first language does contain numeral classification experience an initial stage of classifier non-suppliance in their L2 Japanese.

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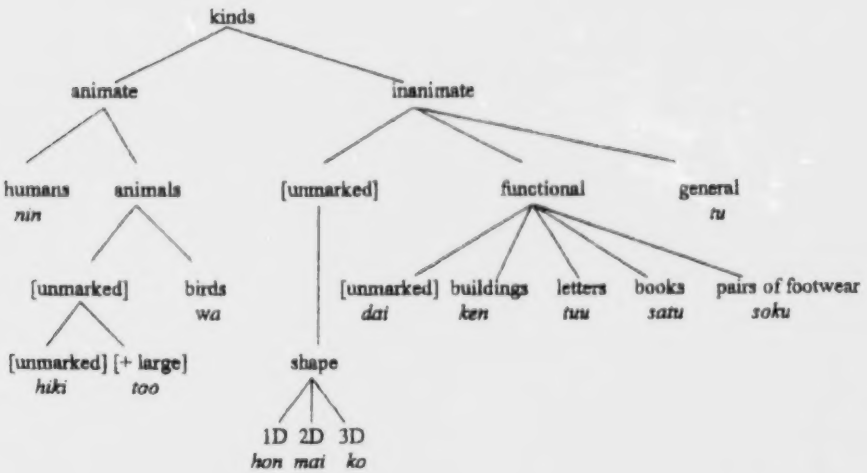
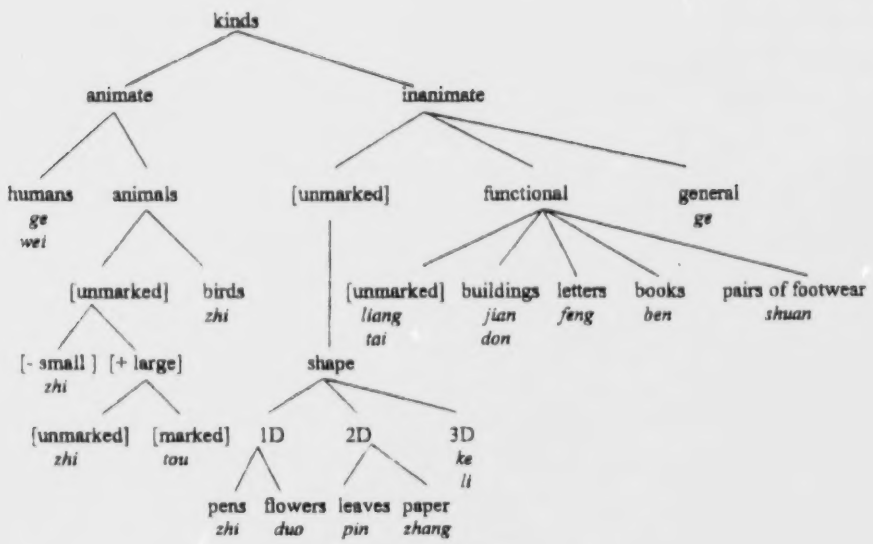
Appendix 1

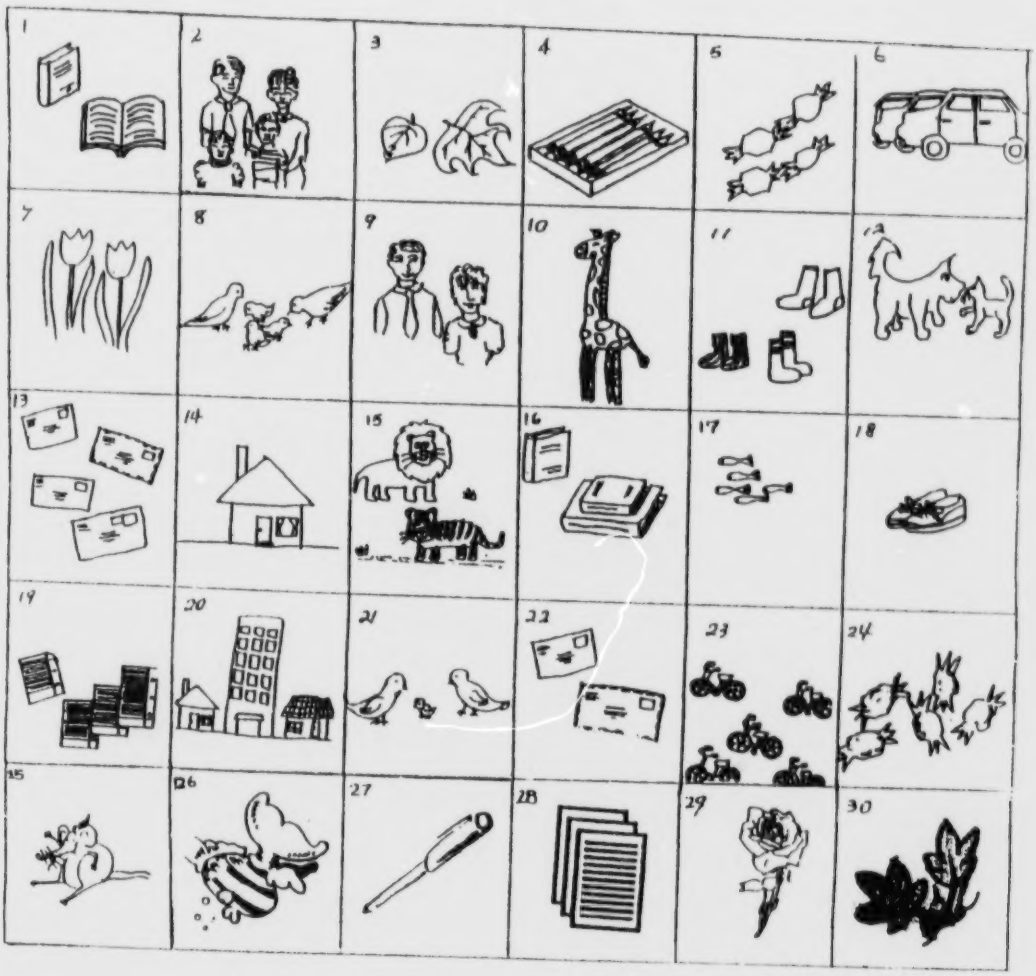
Elicited Classifiers : Japanese



Elicited Classifiers: Chinese



Appendix 2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Research Forum

An Analysis of Discourse Miscues in the Oral Production of Non-native Speakers of English

V. Michael Cribb
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When native speakers of English (NSs) listen to non-native speakers' (NNSs) spoken discourse, there is sometimes a perception of incoherence. Tyler and Bro (1992) have suggested that this is often due to miscues. This study examines the unplanned spoken discourse of four NNSs elicited via oral proficiency interviews to see how pervasive such miscues are and what form they take. Miscues in the area of specificity, the verb phrase, and logical connection are investigated. The results suggest that specificity and logical connection play a significant part in creating incoherence in the discourse, but miscues in the verb phrase are less important. The implication is that such miscues need to receive more attention from teachers and students in the classroom.

英語母語話者が、英語を母語としない者の英語を聞くとき、話に一貫性がないと感じることがある。Tyler and Bro(1992)は、この原因の一つとして、話者間でなされる誤った解釈が度重なることにより、非整合性が生じることを挙げている。本論では、英語を母語としない者4名へのインタビューを通して得られたスピーチデータををもとに、誤解の重大さや、形式を分析した。質的考察を行った結果、非整合性の原因としては、動詞句の誤った解釈よりも、内容の明確化と論理的結合性が強く関係していることが明らかになった。教師・学習者双方が、解釈の誤りへの注意と意識を持つことが必要である。

Most teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) have experienced the situation of listening to a student produce spoken discourse only to feel that there is something about it that "just doesn't seem right." The words and sentences are understandable, but the discourse as a whole lacks coherence. This can be a frustrating experience because, while the student is told that he or she cannot be understood, the teacher is hard pressed to give explicit advice on how the discourse can be improved. In optimal circumstances, the teacher can repair the grammatical errors and try to paraphrase

the student's words, but this rarely enables the student to discover the problem with the original discourse that led to the incoherence. Moreover, the pressure to continue with the lesson means that the cause of such misunderstanding is often overlooked.

This paper examines spoken discourse produced by four Korean non-native speakers (NNSs) of English to identify some of the elements that lead to a lack of coherence. Whereas attention has been paid to NNS grammatical accuracy in this respect, Tyler and Bro (1992) have suggested that the lack of coherence in NNS speech is due in part to "the cumulative result of interacting miscues at the discourse level" (p. 71). These miscues result in information that is presented in an unexpected manner, making it difficult for the native speaker (NS) listener to integrate it into the ongoing discourse.

The research reported here takes this perspective by examining spoken discourse elicited via oral proficiency interviews to see if such miscues are present, how frequent they are and what form they take. However, two caveats must be made. First, coherence is a difficult notion to address since it is a function of many overlapping features, and conducting a multifaceted analysis that simultaneously takes into account all features is complex and lengthy. Inevitably, some readers will point to other features that are potential sources of misunderstanding in the discourse, but this does not mean that limiting the extent of the analysis to a narrowly defined domain, as has been done here, lacks merit. If this were the case, then it would be very difficult to say anything at all about NNS discourse. Second, deciding which features lead to incoherence and to what degree is inherently subjective. A larger study, where coherence is judged by a panel of raters and their coding correlated, would reduce this subjectivity to some degree. However, analyzing such complexity with the need to control for confounding variables is beyond the scope of this study.

With these two caveats in mind, the present study should be viewed as an exploratory examination of miscues in NNS spoken discourse, rather than an attempt to demonstrate statistically that such miscues are the only source of incoherence. Miscues have received scant attention from researchers in the past compared to more traditional error analyses, but in many ways they are more serious because their covert nature prevents students and teachers from seeking ways to overcome them.

Theoretical Framework

Coherence in discourse has been viewed by scholars from two vantage points. One takes the view that coherence is contained wholly

within the discourse (i.e., bottom-up). Halliday and Hasan (1976) present the best-known account from this viewpoint and argue that particular lexico-grammatical cohesive ties act to bind a text and provide "texture," synonymous with coherence (see Brazil, 1985; Hoey, 1983; Phillips, 1985; Winter, 1977 for alternative analyses).

The alternative view (Carrell, 1982; De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981; Green & Morgan, 1981; McCagg, 1990) argues for the need to consider the reader/listener and the mental schemata that he or she brings to the process of interpretation (i.e. top-down). McCagg (1990), for example, says:

> Coherence . . . is an aspect of comprehension that is established in the mind of the reader as a result of a perception of relatedness among a text's propositions and between the text and the knowledge that the reader possesses of the world (p. 113).

Tyler (1994) has attempted to integrate the two perspectives by suggesting that certain "contextualization cues" contained within the discourse act as signals for the listener, indicating how to interpret it. She writes:

> [C]ertain linguistic forms act as contextualization cues which signal to the listener how to interpret information and integrate it into the ongoing discourse. [These forms] act as metamarkers, guiding the listener through the discourse (p. 244).

Thus as native speakers listen to discourse, there are certain cues that meet the expectations of the listener, allowing the new information to be integrated into the ongoing discourse. Examples of cues used in English are lexical discourse markers, patterns of repetition, prosody, anaphora, and the use of syntactic incorporation (Tyler, 1992, p. 714). Furthermore, these cues are language specific, according to Tyler, and thus are a potential source of cross-cultural miscommunication. Tyler & Bro (1992, 1993) have shown that when NNSs use these cues in an unexpected manner, NSs find that the discourse lacks coherence. They suggest that the perception of incoherence is created by the "cumulative result of interacting miscues at the discourse level" (Tyler & Bro, 1992, p. 71), in particular in the areas of logical connection, tense/aspect, and specificity.

In addition, qualitative studies by Tyler (1992, 1994) have investigated the discourse structure of planned lectures given by NS and

NNS teaching assistants at American universities. She found clear differences in the amount and type of hypotaxis and parataxis, lexical specificity and tense cueing devices that made the non-native discourse seem difficult to follow. In a similar study Williams (1992) found that allowing planning time for NNS lectures led to more "explicit marking of discourse structure" (p. 693) compared to no planning time, and concluded that this marking is a crucial element in the comprehensibility of the NNSs' production. She notes:

> [NNSs] need to use more explicit discourse markers in order to overcome other comprehensibility difficulties that may be the result of more local problems, such as pronunciation. This also means, insofar as the use of discourse markers is concerned, that [NNSs] should not necessarily be targeting NS behavior. In this instance, they may need to go beyond it in order to achieve the same result as the [NS] in terms of comprehensibility (p. 707).

Here Williams is suggesting that NNSs should be overly explicit in their use of discourse markers, more than would be considered native-like, a point that will be considered again below.

The following exploratory analysis considers coherence only from the textual aspect (i.e. bottom-up). There are two reasons for this. First, there is the need to limit the domain of the study. Arguing from a top-down perspective is complex and needs to take into account many pragmatic factors. Second, teachers have some control over the bottom-up process since they can encourage students to produce discourse that is coherent, but they do not have much control over the top-down process (i.e., the background knowledge and schemata that the listener brings to the process of interpretation). Therefore the analysis presented here can only be partial and different interpretations could be reached by other listeners.

Discourse Miscues

Three major categories of cueing devices have been investigated by Tyler and Bro (1992, 1993): specificity, tense/aspect, and logical connection. The authors use the term "discourse miscues" (as opposed to "errors") when these devices are used in a non-native like way. Under the heading of specificity, the use of articles, pronominalization, and lexical specificity (which includes certain aspects of adjectival modification and appropriate lexical choice) is included. Tyler and Bro (1992) note:

> The overarching notion [of this category] is that the referent in the discourse should be sufficiently identified to avoid undue ambiguity or confusion for the audience (p. 75).

In the second category, tense and aspect miscues of the verb phrase are considered. Bardovi-Harlig (1995) suggests that tense is used to signal foreground and background information as well as showing chronology, and thus acts as a discourse structuring device.

The third category, logical connection, looks at how the information in discourse is packaged through discourse markers and how prominence relations are brought about through the use of hypotaxis and parataxis. Hypotactic constructions are complex sentential constructions which involve two or more clauses, (e.g., *The woman who lives next door is pregnant*) whereas parataxis constructions involve single clauses juxtaposed or linked by coordinate conjunctions, (e.g., *The woman lives next door. She is pregnant*). Studies have shown (Chafe, 1982; Danielewicz, 1984; Lakoff, 1984) that English speakers make use of hypotactic structures (relative, complement and subordinate clauses) in conjunction with paratactic structures as important discourse structuring devices to signal prominence relations amongst the various ideas and information, although their use is greater for planned speech than unplanned speech (Danielewicz, 1984). Tyler (1992) has argued that:

> [H]eavy reliance on coordinate conjunction and juxtaposition in lieu of syntactic incorporation [i.e., hypotaxis] essentially strips the discourse of important sources of information regarding prominence and logical relationships (p. 721).

In addition, Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995) suggest that the use of discourse markers, both macro and micro, serves to bring out the relationships among different pieces of information.

The Present Study

This study is similar to Tyler's work in that it considers the three categories discussed above (specificity, verb tense/aspect and logical connection), but there are several differences. First, aside from the 1992 study with Bro (Tyler & Bro, 1992), Tyler's work considered planned speech (lectures) whereas this study looks at unplanned speech. A number of studies (e.g., Danielewicz, 1984; Biber, 1988) have shown that planning affects the discourse produced. The discourse analyzed

here is unplanned, yet consists of formal interviews to elicit speech so it is suggested to lie somewhere between unplanned narrative and planned speech in terms of the discourse features being investigated. Second, Tyler (1992) only considered four turns (monologues). This study attempts to take a wider view by looking at a larger number of turns to see how pervasive miscues are. Finally, this study includes turns from four NNSs at different language proficiency levels, thus enabling some consideration of variation according to proficiency.

Method

Data Collection

The NNS discourse studied was elicited via oral proficiency interviews (OPI) that were conducted in the first week of an intensive 8-week English language program for employees at a large corporation in Korea. The OPI had been used for several years and all interviewers were skilled in elicitation techniques and subsequent rating. An interview setup was used because it was felt that extraneous variables could be held relatively constant compared to more spontaneous data. The OPI used was that published by the Educational Testing Service (ETS, 1982) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL, 1986). This consists of a 20 to 30 minute relatively unstructured interview with a candidate over a range of topics. The general format is for the interviewer to ask a question and then allow the candidate to respond with minimum interruption. When the candidate has finished answering, the next question is posed. The interviewer will normally ask a number of probing questions to find out the candidate's sustained level (the level at which the candidate's discourse is relatively fluent and accurate) and breakdown level (the level at which the discourse becomes markedly less fluent and/or accurate).

Participants

Four male participants were chosen for the study and constituted a convenience sample. All were adult native speakers of Korean and had been employed by their company for between three to six years after graduation from university. Subject A was rated at level 1 (intermediate-low), subject B at 1+ (intermediate-high), and subjects C and D were rated at level 2 (advanced) according to the OPI rating scale.

Procedure

Subjects A and B were interviewed twice and subjects C and D once.

Subjects A, B, and D were interviewed by the author and subject C by a colleague. The interviews were tape recorded and transcribed by the author, and particular turns were selected for analysis. The criterion for selection was chiefly length, with anything between 30 seconds and 2 minutes being considered. Shorter turns were judged to be too brief for suitable discourse patterns to emerge and very few turns of more than two minutes were found. In addition, turns that were deemed to be very incoherent were omitted.

In total, 40 turns were selected for analysis, 13 from subject A, 14 from subject B, 6 from subject C, and 7 from subject D. Fewer turns were available for subjects C and D since they were only interviewed once. This gave a total of 2,063 words in just under 47 minutes, representing about half of the total production from the subjects in the interviews. Table 1 summarizes each participant's turns.

Table 1: Number and Length of Turns for Each Subject

Subject	A	B	C	D	Total /Ave.
No. of turns analyzed	13	14	6	7	40
Total no. words[1]	589	698	397	379	2063
Ave. length per turn (words)	45	50	66	54	52
Total length (mins.)	17m 30s	13m	7m48s	8m22s	46m 40s
Ave. length per turn (secs)	80	56	77	72	70

[1] After removal of hesitation phenomena

Data Analysis

After a small pausology study, it was decided to remove certain hesitation phenomena, or what Clark (1996) terms "disruptions" (p. 258), in order to facilitate analysis. These included fillers (e.g., *um, er*), repeated items (e.g., there were *there were. . .*), some false starts (e.g., *there are* there must be. . .), and repairs (e.g., like at *the school* at school. . .). While some researchers may object to removing parts of the utterance, the technique facilitates analysis, and only items that were deemed not to significantly interfere with comprehension were removed.

Next the turns were divided into idea-units. According to Chafe (1980), an idea unit is a brief "spurt of language" (p. 13) that is typical of spoken language and can be identified by intonational contours, pauses, and syntactic boundaries. Pausing and intonational contours were far from native-like in the discourse studied here, especially at the low and intermediate proficiency levels. Since sophisticated equipment was not available for intonation measurements, more emphasis was placed on syntactic boundaries for idea-unit segmentation.

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Finally, the main part of the research, the discourse miscue analysis, was conducted by the author. Each turn was analyzed for the presence of major discourse miscues and minor discourse miscues in the area of specificity, the verb phrase, and logical connection. A major discourse miscue was one considered to significantly interfere with the coherence of a turn on a global level, a miscue that affects listener understanding of the whole or a major part of the turn. A minor discourse miscue occurs on a local level and leads to misunderstanding of a relatively smaller part of the turn (i.e., at the level of one or two idea-units). The next section will exemplify how major miscues are identified.

There is obviously a degree of subjectivity that is difficult to avoid in deciding what counts as a miscue and whether it is major or minor. Unlike an error analysis, where errors can usually be identified on formal grounds (although this is by no means clear), a discourse miscue analysis conducted within Tyler's framework is inherently subjective since it attempts to take into account both the text and the listener and, in particular, how the two interact. Future research should therefore make use of a panel of raters to obtain inter-rater reliability estimates for miscue coding.

Results and Discussion

Table 2 presents the average number of miscues per turn for each subject. Generally, subjects A and B (the intermediate proficiency students) produced more miscues per turn (2 or more) than subjects C and D (the advanced proficiency students).

Table 2: Average Miscue Per Turn for Each Subject

Subject	A	B	C	D	Average
Miscues per turn	2.08	2.21	1.00	0.71	1.73
Major miscues per turn	1.08	0.57	0.17	0.43	0.65
Minor miscues per turn	1.00	1.64	0.83	0.29	1.08

Table 3 gives the number of miscues for each category (specificity, logical connection and verb tense/aspect) and sub-category for each student. Overall, the category of specificity had the greatest number of miscues (33) while logical connection was second (24) and verb phrase third (12). Most of the miscues in the verb phrase tense/aspect were minor miscues. However it is not the absolute number of miscues per turn but the degree of severity of each miscue that is important, hence the major/minor distinction. For example, it is quite pos-

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sible that a turn with five minor miscues might be perceived as being more coherent than a turn with only one major miscue.

Table 3: Number of Miscues for Each Category

Subject	A			B			C			D			Total		
	Maj	Min	Tot	Maj	Min	Tot	Maj	Min	Tot	Maj	Min	Tot	Maj	Min	Tot
SPECIFICITY	5	7	12	6	9	15	1	2	3	1	2	3	13	20	33
pronominalization	2	2	4	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	4	7
articles	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2
lexical choice & adjectival mod.	3	5	8	5	7	12	1	1	2	1	1	2	10	14	24
VERB PHRASE	3	1	4	0	7	7	0	1	1	0	0	0	3	9	12
tense	0	1	1	0	6	6	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	8	8
modality	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
voice	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
aspect	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
LOGICAL CONN	6	5	11	2	7	9	0	2	2	2	0	2	10	14	24
syntactic incorp.	1	1	2	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	4
discourse markers	5	4	9	2	5	7	0	2	2	2	0	2	9	11	20
Totals	**14**	**13**	**27**	**8**	**23**	**31**	**1**	**5**	**6**	**3**	**2**	**5**	**26**	**43**	**69**

Specificity

In this category the overall aim is that "the referent in the discourse should be sufficiently identified to avoid undue ambiguity or confusion for the audience" (Tyler & Bro, 1992, p. 75). Since miscues in this category were the most frequent of the three categories, semantic accuracy may be as important, if not more important, for students and teachers than the traditional area of syntactic accuracy.

Within this category, lexical choice, which includes adjectival modification, was the most common miscue. Sometimes the lexical item could have been integrated into the discourse better if the subject had given more supporting detail or used it more appropriately. An example of this can be seen below. In this and all other examples, the interviewer's question is in italics.

> Example 1: *Do you think that the reasons for divorce in America are the same as those in Korea or do you think there is a difference due to culture?*
> (a) I think, (b) there is to same. (c) It's different from our and American (d) but human is all the same. (e) But a little bit cultural differences. (f) America a little some personalism, (g) but we Korean have communicative group mind. (h) I

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don't know group mind, (i) we have group mind. (j) Okay, (k) that's the different point.

Units (f-k) basically can be paraphrased as *America has X and Korea has Y and that is the difference*. However, the referents of the noun phrases *personalism* and *communicative group mind* are difficult to resolve. The first probably refers to *individualism* and the second to *group consensus* or *collectivism*. But these are abstract concepts and the lack of support leaves the listener with the feeling that the turn is incomplete. This lack of support for abstract concepts is quite common for NNSs. They frequently learn vocabulary in isolation, often using a mother tongue translation, but then get little practice and feedback in using the new items in communicative contexts.

At other times, the lexical choice was wrong and confounded the listener's attempt to integrate it into the ongoing discourse. This can be seen in the turn below:

Example 2: *What do you think are the benefits of trial by jury in America compared to trial by judge in Korea?*
(a) I am very surprised about that. (b) Basically I think the O.J. Simpson have to be dead. (c) This result is not dead. (d) The money from economical power is very important in America and other Western. (e) Judge systems are affected by the money and economy. (f) We have, in Korea that is not occurred.

In unit (e), the subject simply makes a mistake and selects *judge* instead of *jury*. This is critical to the turn since up till then we have been listening to a criticism of America and the West and their *jury* system, which is introduced in the question. Then the subject suddenly refers to the *judge* system that the listener associates with Korea. This interrupts the flow of meaning and creates a perception of incoherence for the whole turn, not just the idea-unit.

Pronominalization was the second largest cause of miscuing in this category. All cases involved third person pronoun miscues (such as *it, they, her, he*), never first or second. This is shown in the following turn:

Example 3: *Do you think presidents should have a privileged position after they retire?*
(a) After they retire? (b) Yes. (c) There is no people who is respected now after (d) he retired the president. (e) But the

future, (f) many people respect someone who was president.

The subject uses the third person pronoun *he* in (d) but its intended referent is not clear. The problem is compounded by the choice of the lexical item *people* in (c). Ehrlich (1988) has suggested that a typical pattern in English is for the pronoun to bind to the nearest antecedent, provided that it matches for gender and number. This would make *people* a potential candidate, although the pronoun and antecedent do not agree in number. There seem to be two possible interpretations of the subject's intentions here. Either the pronoun *he* refers exophorically to the former Korean president who had just retired at the time and the noun *people* refers to the general public, or *he* refers back endophorically to *people*, which refers to presidents in general. That is, either (c-d) have specific reference and are roughly paraphrased as *There is nobody who respects him now since he (the former Korean president) has retired from the presidency*, or they have generic reference and can be paraphrased as *There is no president who is respected now after he retires from the presidency*. The choice of *people* suggests the first interpretation, but the grammatical construct of the sentence suggests the second.

Article miscues rarely caused anything but a minor miscue. Although the English article system is one of the most difficult areas for Asian learners to master, it is one of the most benign in its contribution to coherence. Another explanation is that article misuse is less obvious at the intermediate-low proficiency level, where it tends to be overshadowed by more obtrusive miscues.

Verb Phrase

Miscues in the verb phrase did not prove to be as damaging to the construction of coherence as they were initially envisaged. Only three major miscues were recorded, all by subject A, who seemed to have a particular problem with this area. Probably the most harmful is seen in the turn below where the subject fails to signal the modality of the idea-units presented in (h-l); they are presented as on-going states of affairs when in fact the speaker intends them to be taken as suggested points of action. The situation is aggravated by the weak marker *so* in (h) that introduces them. A firmer commitment would be *Therefore I think we should do the following things*.... Although this type of marker may not be so frequent in unplanned NS speech, Williams' (1992) idea that students should "go beyond [NS behavior] in order to achieve the same results as the [NS] in terms of comprehensibility" (p. 707) justifies this type of explicit commitment.

Example 4: *What do you think is the biggest problem in Korea and if you were the president, what would you do to solve the problem?*
(a) The biggest problem is pollution. (b) Another problem exists (c) but pollution is very serious. (d) All pollution . . . er . . . (e) I can't explain. (f) All pollution frighten . . . er no . . . our lives. (g) Threatens, okay, okay. (h) So we preserved our national source and our environment positively. (i) Civil movement group are more grow and, (j) preserve environment positively. (k) Make the law prevent air pollution and elect . . . (l) Make the law to prevent air pollution. (m) And . . . I can not explain.

Tense proved only to be a minor miscue. For subject B, who made the most tense miscues, there was often some type of marker outside the verb phrase that helped the listener to successfully locate the temporal reference, such as an adverb or adverbial phrase. Where an overt marker is not present, the discourse helps to determine the temporal location of the unit to a high degree.

Logical Connection

Logical connection was the second biggest source of miscues. Most of the major miscues occurred due to discourse marking rather than syntactic incorporation. This is not surprising since second language learners, especially Asian students, have difficulty forming hypotactic constructions and tend to avoid using them (Schachter, 1974; Tyler, 1992). This was confirmed by the data, which tended to contain fewer dependent clause structures and more pre-noun modifications (as opposed to post-noun) when compared to Danielewicz's (1984) findings for unplanned native speaker speech (See Table 4).

Table 4: Comparison of Danielewicz's Findings and This Study

Feature	Danielewicz[1]	This study[2]
Words per idea-unit	7.09	7.02
Dependent clauses[3]	57	30
subordinate	19	14
relative	20	2
complement	18	10
Nominalization	1.6	0.6

Attributive adjectives	49	78
Participles	18	2

[1] Danielewicz's (1984) findings for unplanned, adult (native speaker) speech.
[2] Excluding subject D.
[3] Per 1,000 words

While unplanned NS speech does not contain many hypotactic constructions (20% according to Danielewicz, 1984, p. 237), it is possible that discourse of the type presented here, if produced by a native speaker, might contain more. The questions and expected answers are on a level of complexity and abstractness that demands a degree of syntactic incorporation over and above that required for unplanned narratives or simple descriptions of personal topics. Thus, we would expect the discourse to be somewhere between unplanned narratives and planned speech in the degree of syntactic incorporation it contains. Indeed, the instructions for the OPI call for the interviewer to push the student to a level beyond their sustained level (i.e., narratives and simple descriptions for intermediate students) to determine the breakdown level. This breakdown level occurs for a number of reasons (fluency, grammatical accuracy, etc.) but is also due to the lack of syntactic incorporation of the types that Tyler (1992) has suggested signal prominence relations within the discourse. Teachers often observe that students who can give a lengthy and coherent narration of a personal experience are often unable to coherently articulate an extended turn on a more complex topic. This is one reason that discourse miscues under the logical connection heading (i.e., how the idea-units are packaged) require further investigation.

Although there were not many instances in the data where a lack of syntactic incorporation caused a major miscue, this was due in part to the absence of hypotactic constructions and the difficulty of marking a feature as a miscue through its absence. The following shows where a piece of discourse might benefit from some syntactic incorporation:

> Example 5: (a) Our company's master plan is fixed. (b) We have to observe the schedule and time. (c) I must put the drawings to the field that schedule time . . .

The idea-units here are presented as an unarticulated set of relations. The only clue given to the listener for integration of the ideas is the lexical cohesion. An alternative rendering using syntactic incorporation and discourse marking to make it more easily understood could be *We have to observe the schedule and time of our company's master*

plan which is fixed. Therefore I must send the drawings to the field on time.

The problem for the teacher is what advice should be given to students regarding syntactic incorporation. Both Korean and Japanese students tend to avoid using such devices (Schachter, 1974; Tyler, 1992). In addition, Tyler (1994) has shown that even when they are used, if they are not used in a native-like way, they can cause more confusion than if not used at all. The ability to construct a relative clause in a syntactically correct way does not guarantee its success since the speaker also needs to know what information to foreground.

The use of syntactic incorporation is quite complex and further understanding of how it is used by NSs is needed. It is certainly not something which could be explicitly taught to students in a few lessons, but students should acquire competence in this area if they are to handle the complexity of questioning and the type of speech investigated here.

Miscues through discourse marking are more overt and easier to identify since most students have the resources to articulate them. It is their misuse that is of more concern. Several major miscues occurred in this sub-category. The common markers such as *but* and *so* were used correctly in many cases but there was a tendency to overextend their use to act as cover markers in some instances. Subject A sometimes used *but* as a cover marker for arguments, and subject B used *so* at times to introduce idea-units that were not logical consequences of preceding discourse, its normal usage. Tyler (1992) found a similar pattern with the marker *as* for Chinese students of English. At other times, markers were dropped or missing, leaving idea-units "stranded."

The turn below is an interesting case of how miscues in logical connection can lead to difficulties:

> Example 6: *Why are Korean parents so concerned about their child's girlfriend or boyfriend?*
> (a) In Korea, (b) parents always want to know about her children. (c) They want to know their children's behavior like at school or at company or something like that. (d) So, because of the wedding is very important, (e) because of wedding is very important, (f) I think, (g) they decided a whole life (h) when someone marry someone. (i) So, parents concentrated their interest on her or his girlfriend or boyfriend.

Here the relationship between the information in (d-i) is not made explicit. This is largely due to the connectors linking (d-i). A paraphrase of the NNS's probable intention is *Marriage is very important since a*

person's future is determined when they marry; thus Korean parents are very interested in their child's girlfriend or boyfriend. However the logical connections are not made clear. First, the NNS confuses things by introducing (d) with the marker *so* and then immediately substituting it with *because of.* Idea-unit (d) is then repeated in (e). Then units (f-h) are simply juxtaposed with (d-e) giving no indication of how they should be integrated into the discourse. They are in fact parenthetical remarks but there is no marking to indicate this. On the contrary, they are more likely to be taken by the listener as the logical consequence of (d) even though this is not the NNS's intention. Finally, the real logical consequence of (d) is given in (i), but the listener cannot be sure what it is the logical consequence of. In this particular turn, miscues in lexical specificity and repetition add to the confusing nature.

The turn below reiterates how discourse markers can be given, but then the subject does make clear what information is supposed to fall under the "umbrella" of the marker.

> Example 7: *Why do you think the communist north (Korea) is continuing to send infiltrators to the south?*
> (a) I didn't think about that deeply, (b) but the situation in north is very dangerous now, (c) I think. (d) So, There . . . (e) relatively we South Korea is so calm down relative to north. (f) So the top of the North Korea wants to disturb us, (g) because they are now disturbing. (h) The situation of the north is very boring. (i) The situation is very dangerous, (j) I think, (k) so the top of the north send the person or people to disturb our country.

This turn is relatively well formed until (g) where the subject gives the marker *because* and then attempts to give the reason why North Korea is disturbing South Korea. However, the information contained in the unit (they are now disturbing) cannot logically be a reason since it merely repeats what has been said before. Idea-unit (h) is then given but without any connector to show how it should be integrated into the discourse. It is possible that the previous *because* was intended to carry over to this idea-unit but again it is difficult to see how the fact that *the situation of the north is very boring* could be a plausible cause, since boring situations do not normally lead to confrontation. Idea-unit (k) is given in a similar manner and again we are not sure if it is the reason. Finally, the subject introduces (k) with the marker *so* signaling that it is the consequence of the preceding discourse. However, the information in (k) has already been stated and thus is not a candidate

for logical consequence. The listener is not clear why North Korea is disturbing South Korea.

The idea-units are quite well formed syntactically, apart from the direct object *us* missing in (g), so merely repairing the grammatical errors would not make the turn any easier to understand. The chief reason why it is difficult to understand is that a series of ideas have been presented in a disconnected manner. Some of the idea-units are obviously not what the subject intended to say, and clearly he is having a hard time formulating his idea into exact words. But connectors such as *sorry, no that's wrong, what I mean is. . . .* and *as I said* would have helped the listener to integrate the information more successfully. Again, while NSs may avoid such overt marking in their speech, NNSs need all the help they can get to maintain coherence, and a certain degree of overuse is a suitable communication strategy.

As a final example, consider Example 1, discussed in terms of specificity previously. It presents an interesting case that shows how logical connecting can work in tandem with specificity miscues to create a degree of incoherence. The first half (a-e) has poor logical connection, saying the reasons for divorce are the same and then saying they are different. The subject's opinion is not clear. From (f) onwards, the packaging of information improves but then specificity miscues come into play (see the Specificity section above).

Cross-Student Comparisons

Before leaving the data, it is interesting to make some cross-student comparisons. Two of the subjects were rated at advanced level and two were rated at the intermediate level according to the ETS/ACTFL proficiency rating scale. This is a major boundary in the rating scale, and although a study of this size cannot demonstrate this statistically, it does appear that there is a difference in the number of miscues and their quality between the advanced and intermediate speakers. In particular, subject A (level 1) consistently made major discourse miscues in all three areas. The advanced level subjects C and D made fewer miscues per turn (see Table 2) and had fewer major miscues. It is possible that requirements for reaching the advanced level on the rating scale include the ability to address topics with a certain degree of complexity/abstractness using extended discourse that is structured coherently and relatively free of miscues. Although additional research with a substantially greater number of turns is required to support this assertion, teachers should be aware that their students need to be pushed to deliver extended discourse if their proficiency level is to be correctly determined.

Conclusion

This exploratory study has investigated the discourse of four Korean non-native speakers of English to see if miscues in the area of specificity, logical connection, and the verb phrase tense/aspect contribute to the perception of incoherence for the native speaker/listener. The analysis indicates that miscues in the category of specificity and logical connection were present to a high degree and, in many cases, were major miscues that caused confusion for the NS listener. Miscues in the verb phrase category, however, were not as common. It was suggested that a focus on semantic accuracy and communication strategies emphasizing explicitness would help to correct these miscues. In addition, there appeared to be a difference in the quality and quantity of discourse miscues between the advanced speakers and the intermediate speakers, although this could not be demonstrated statistically.

As mentioned, coherence in discourse is a function of multiple variables. This study has only been able to look at a subset of these variables, and the author acknowledges its limitations. However, these features have received little attention in the past, even though they are potentially more problematic than grammatical errors. It is hoped that this study will raise teacher and student awareness of these features and lead to further discussion. It is therefore suggested that the following are important areas for future research:

1) A study needs to be conducted with a panel of raters independently judging coherence. The raters could subsequently be interviewed to determine what features led to their perception of incoherence. This would permit assessment of inter-rater reliability.
2) A greater number of discourse turns from a wider variety of students would enable the results to be generalized to other students from the same population. In particular, more turns would highlight the variation in features of students above and below the advanced level, which is a major boundary in the ETS /ACTFL rating scale.
3) More research into unplanned NS speech is needed to highlight the variation in syntactic incorporation due to changes in topic complexity and/or the degree of abstractness. It should not be assumed that unplanned NS speech is homogeneous in this respect.

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Perspectives

Tools of Recursion, Intermental Zones of Proximal Development, and Critical Collaborative Autonomy

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Exploratory teaching (Allwright, 1991) was conducted in a Japanese university EFL course in which students were asked to study themselves as learners in participatory action research (Auerbach, 1994). Weekly student commentary shows how reflection-in-action, reflection-on-action (Schön, 1987), and reflection literacy (Hasan, 1996) were encouraged by the recursive micro-discursive tools of shadowing and summarizing while recording conversations, and by the recursive reflective tools of action-logging and newsletters. Highlighting student voices through newsletters seemed to enrich the participants' sense of a common intermental space in which to negotiate and scaffold meaning. These tools of recursion helped students manifest what their minds were modeling, making comprehensible what they were thinking to themselves and to others, and create overlapping intermental zones of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1934). Comments from student action logs are used to support the idea that intermental interaction can lead toward critical collaborative autonomy (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000).

本稿では、日本の大学の第２言語習得研究のクラスにおいて試行された探究的な授業研究について発表する。生徒には、自ら、言語学習の対象者としてアクションリサーチに参加し、協力するよう依頼した。シャドーイングと要約の練習をテープに録音させながら毎週繰返して行い、授業日誌(action log)を書かせ、ニューズレターでフィードバックをした結果、生徒が自ら授業を振り返り、自身の言語習得過程を熟考するようになっていくことが、生徒の感想から明らかになった。特に、ニューズレターを用い、生徒の声をクラスの仲間と共有させることは、生徒間の内的なインタラクションを促進し、相互理解を深めることに役立つようである。また、こうした学習過程を繰り返すことは、生徒自身がお互いに考えていることをはっきりさせ、ヴィゴツキーの提唱するZPDS (zones of proximal development)の形成に寄与することが分かった。つまり、生徒間の内的なインタラクションが、批判的、協力的、自主的な学習集団の形成につながるということである

> *I alone cannot step out from the world I constructed. If I study alone, I may be confined to this finite world forever. But, by taking cooperation into learning, I can expand and enrich this world and its expanding is infinite.* (From a student's action log, included in class newsletter #7)

> *The quality of the conversation is not necessarily decided by English proficiency, but by the attitude of trying to understand each other well.* (From a student's action log, included in class newsletter #8)

I read these comments in Rika and Miki's (pseudonyms) action logs toward the end of the first semester and put them into the newsletter for the next class. I wanted everybody to read those lines, to think about them, and talk about them. I also wanted to think about them myself. "What we want for one student is what we should want for ourselves" (Leibowitz, 2000, p. 77).

In my weekly university SLA class held in a language laboratory, the students audio-recorded conversations and then listened to them and reflected on their performances. They had also grappled with the concept of *constructivism*, the idea that knowledge is not simply transmitted to learners; rather, learners construct their own individualized understanding of concepts based on their previous experience, abilities, learning styles, the context, and probably much more. The students became aware that new learning often first occurs *intermentally*, or intersubjectively (between people during discourse), and then through various processes these become *intramental* (within the self). Often the students' comments about their interaction with classmates inspired me to reflect as one of their collaborators and to intermentally learn from them and employ their ideas within my own thinking.

This descriptive, hypothesis-generating paper suggests that at least some students in one advanced university EFL class in Japan were able to grasp this social-constructivism through "tools" (activities) that allowed them *to make manifest what their minds were modeling* in temporarily shared social worlds (Thorne, 2000). These tools also allowed them to construct intermental moments that led them through the five movements toward critical collaborative autonomy (CCA) presented by Murphey and Jacobs (2000) and discussed and exemplified below.

The main tools used by the students were (a) *shadowing* (immediately repeating part or all of an interlocutor's words during a conversation), (b) *summarizing* (retelling the interlocutor's points to show comprehension after listening to a chunk of discourse) (see Murphey 1995,

1999a, 2000, in press for additional reports), (c) *action logging* (writing a reflective account of class activities), and (d) class newsletters, consisting of student comments selected from their action logs (Murphey, 1993; Woo & Murphey, 1999; Kindt & Murphey, 2000). These tools made possible recursive participatory action research cycles of spoken and written communication that have been suggested to develop learners' reflection literacy (Hasan, 1996). In this paper I define *tools of recursion* in language acquisition as procedures that allow language and topics to reoccur frequently within a short time, giving learners more exposure to them by producing an input and output flood of target tokens within meaningful communication. Thus, shadowing, summarizing, action logging, and newsletters are tools of recursion since they allow repeated use of the same or similar language items, from simple repetition, to reformulation, to new production and novel use. Tools of recursion also involve listening, speaking, writing, and reading looped into activities repeatedly. However, these should not be seen as steps, but rather as different ways of repeatedly presenting language and ideas so that they are better understood and acquired. *Micro-discursive* activities deal with word and phrase level interactions with language and ideas, whereas *macro-discursive* activities involve reflecting about class activities and evaluating them and one's performances globally. Macro-discursive tools are therefore more metacognitive in nature.

In this paper, I first introduce the SLA course and describe the tools of recursion used in the course. Key concepts of CCA and Vygotskian sociocultural theory are then described. Next I use comments from student weekly action logs to illustrate how the movements toward CCA manifested themselves in student reflection.[1] In choosing this description format, I am guided by Thorne's suggestion: "When SLA researchers attempt to 'get at what's going on' in processes of second and foreign language learning, the unit of analysis and the context within which such research takes place become crucial for the validity of the results." He further reminds us that "context, language (learning and use), and subjectivity are analytically separable, but must be understood holistically and interdependently to make sense of 'situated activity'. . . [and] context is not another variable, but rather is in part productive of, and in part produced by, collective and individual human activity" (2000, p. 263).

Course Description and Structures of Invitation

During the spring semester of 2000 I taught an advanced level university EFL course titled Second Language Acquisition. It is described as

follows in the course handbook:

> This course introduces students to the guiding questions, theory, and research methods in the field of Second Language Acquisition. The class will attempt to model the latest SLA findings in learning theory by having interactive classes that are fun. Students will be able to use their own experience as second language learners and will conduct a short research project on themselves. Students will read a good deal and discuss the material in class.

The students were third- and fourth-year Japanese university students, all about 21 years of age except for one woman in her thirties. Four male and 32 female students finished the course out of the 50 students originally enrolled. Most were English majors and had had some experience abroad. Many were planning to be teachers and six or seven were going to study abroad for a year starting the following semester. Some wanted to study with an English native-speaking teacher and were not particularly interested in SLA at the outset.

The two texts for the course were *How Languages are Learned* (Lightbown & Spada, 1999) and *Seven Kinds of Smart* (Armstrong, 1999). *How Languages are Learned* surveys the field of SLA in a very accessible manner for language learners and teachers. *Seven Kinds of Smart* describes Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences for a general non-academic audience. During the semester students also read eight articles relevant to class content.

Students began the course by writing action logs with double-entry journals citing passages from the assigned readings on the left-hand page and commenting on them on the right. In the third week of the course I introduced mind-mapping[2] (Buzan, 1977), which proved to be a more constructive and interesting way for them to conceptualize the material and discuss it with their peers.

The details of the SLA course are given to situate it, while the components described below are not specific to the course. I do not wish to emphasize the class content but rather the tools which allow students to move toward CCA, whether in a content based instruction (CBI) class or in a language class. The present class entailed both kinds of focus.

The Use of a Language Laboratory

The weekly 90-minute class was held in a Sony LLC-9000 System language laboratory. The laboratory console permitted the random or

adjacent pairing of students for recording conversations. Since students recorded a weekly average of 25 minutes of conversations with randomly chosen peers from each class for listening to and evaluating at home, the recording activity took up a third of the class time. The rest of the class was spent on other activities, including teacher-fronted lectures and discussions.

Shadowing, Summarizing, Extending, and Rejoinders

The students were initially taught shadowing and summarizing (Murphey, 1995, 1999a, 2000, in press) and later extending and rejoinders. As mentioned, shadowing is repeating parts of another's speech as a confirmation, and summarizing helps to encourage negotiation and retention. Extending refers to asking questions in order to extend conversations and get more information. Rejoinders (e.g., Wow! Really! Oh, that's too bad!) are short expressions made by the listener to give the speaker feedback and to show comprehension and empathy.

Action Logs

Action logging (Murphey 1993; Woo & Murphey, 1999) refers to the students' written evaluation of the activities done in class and their subsequent reflection on the activities' usefulness for their learning. These comments were kept in notebooks which I read weekly to find out what the students liked and what they thought helped them to learn. I was also able to give feedback personally to individuals. By writing logs, students could review what they had done and could feel more involved in the course since they had ongoing communication with the teacher and could actually influence the course procedures.

Newsletters

I often chose student comments from their action logs to place in a short class newsletter (Murphey 1993; Woo & Murphey, 1999; Kindt & Murphey, 2000). These comments highlighted important issues raised by the students. Some comments were positive reports of strategy use that inspired other students. However, questions and confusions were often noted and I responded to them either in the newsletter or orally in class. Different views that showed students constructing different ideas and opinions were also included. The newsletters were passed out at the end of class and were read as homework. Students were also asked to talk to their partners about the newsletter contents and to write about what impressed them in their next action logs. Newslet-

ters were given out eight times (weeks 5, 6, 7, 8 and in 10, 11, 12, and 13) in the thirteen-week semester. This way of sharing student voices with the rest of the class took advantage of the knowledge present in the group and promoted an intermental focus on certain ideas.

A Typical Class

A typical class started off with the students finding new partners to sit with, thus adjusting to new people and receiving different influences upon their understanding of the course readings and concepts. During the first few minutes of each class, the students exchanged names and telephone numbers (so they could call for homework if needed or assigned), then read, compared, and discussed each other's action logs. Next they recorded conversations with their peers. Each conversation lasted from 5 to 10 minutes and often began with an easy topic to warm up their English discussion skills (e.g., "Tell me three things you did last weekend."). Later conversations involved questions about course content. The students usually had three to five conversations on their tape to listen to after each class.

The recordings were usually followed by a teacher-led portion of the class in which I told stories and anecdotes relevant to some idea in the course, gave short lectures on different theories and practices, or addressed ideas raised in the action logs. I did not lecture directly on the content of the class readings unless misunderstandings had been noted in the action logs. Instead the students relied mostly on each other, their recorded discussions, and mind maps for learning the material in their books. I often demonstrated the key learning tools (e.g., shadowing, summarizing, extending, rejoinders) with a student partner.

The last few minutes of each class entailed copying down the homework assignments. These usually included the readings for the following week, listening to the tapes, meeting or calling their partners and asking them questions concerning the readings, reading and commenting on newsletters and articles, and perhaps asking informants not in the class for some sort of information. Students turned in their action logs on Fridays and they were returned on Monday, in the next class.

I felt that if students could connect the SLA concepts they read about with their own language learning, they would become more self-aware. For example, recording conversations on weekend activities using shadowing, summarizing, extending, and rejoinders (SSER) was, at first glance, merely an activity to focus attention on certain conversation techniques, thereby encouraging the students to reflect in action (Schön, 1987). However, the students also *reflected on* their perfor-

mances while listening to their cassettes at home by evaluating their use of the techniques. This metacognition was meant to develop their reflective literacy (Hasan, 1996). In fact Swain's recent research suggests that students learn during stimulated recall sessions (2000a), and writing an action log while listening to and reflecting on one's tape is suggested here to be one type of stimulated recall. This activity allowed the students to participate in SLA research concerning their own language learning.

The Essential Concepts of CCA and Constructivism

Recently Murphey and Jacobs (2000) proposed the concept of "critical collaborative autonomy" as a potentially fruitful way of conceptualizing student development. Whereas combining collaboration and autonomy may sound like an oxymoron, the concepts actually go hand in hand. The more that people interact and collaborate, the more choices they become aware of and the more autonomously they can act (see Vygotsky's intermental to intramental process [Wertsch, 1991]). Being autonomous was therefore not defined as acting alone, but rather as being able to take responsibility for one's learning and development (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000). The critical component was suggested to be necessary since there is some danger in overly acquiescent and sheepish collaboration as well as in overly self-centered autonomy. Being critical is thus meant to enrich both the community and private domain with open questioning and a continual search for improvement.

Murphey and Jacobs (2000) proposed that learners tend to move through several overlapping "movements" or stages on their way to CCA: (a) socialization, (b) dawning metacognition, (c) initiating choice, and (d) expanding autonomy. Inherent in the idea of these movements are Vygotsky's concepts of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), intermentality, social-constructivism, and tools of mediation (Vygotsky, 1934/1962; Wertsch, 1991).

The ZPD refers to those things that one is not quite ready to do alone, but can do with the help of another person. For example several students in the SLA class had no previous experience with juggling and could not juggle alone but were able to do it to some degree with a partner. In this example the activity is at first located within the learners' ZPDs (their potential) and enacted (scaffolded) *inter*mentally—between two people. Only later, through further participation, does it become an *intra*mental ability, residing within the mind of the learner. These phenomena are captured by M. C. Bateson when she writes "Participation precedes learning" (1994, p. 41; see also Lave & Wenger, 1991). Participation opens the door to activities that involve

intermentally constructed understandings in temporarily shared social realities (Thorne, 2000). These can lead to individual appropriation and use.

Social-constructivism is a metaphor that can be more illustrative of student and teacher learning than the widespread metaphor of transmission (see Oxford et al., 1998; van Lier, 2000). To put it simply, when teachers and students think along the lines of transmission, teachers speak and students listen. When teachers apply a metaphor of constructivism to learning (often unconsciously), they tend to scaffold (or present) appropriate experiences. This encourages their students to construct individual understanding and to share it with others in the group to further their learning. Such teachers realize that students construct their understandings in different ways and that the results are continually and dynamically developing and are rarely identical. When these constructions are shared, as in newsletters, they produce the awareness (Langer, 1989) that there is not necessarily one correct answer or way to say something, and that we are continually constructing our language, our understanding, and our lives. It then follows that collaborating with others (e.g., creating intermental spaces) enriches our ability to construct our own understanding.

Finally, in Vygotskian sociocultural theory, tools are seen to mediate the way that we perform activities (Wertsch, 1991). Just as telephones, faxes, and computers mediate how we communicate with others, the tools described in this article *mediate* (e.g., facilitate and change) how students socially negotiate their language learning, SLA content, their beliefs and attitudes, and their relationships with one another.

Evidence of Movement

Evidence for the development of CCA through five stages or movements (socialization, dawning metacognition, initiating choice, expanding autonomy, and CCA) discussed in Murphey and Jacobs (2000) is presented below as comments from student action logs as well as teacher classroom observations. Action log (al) numbers (1 to 13) or newsletter (nl) numbers (1 to 8) are provided to locate the comment in time. Minor corrections were made to the student comments before putting them into the newsletters but comments from action logs have not been corrected.

Of the 36 students finishing the course, about 12 students were regularly published in the newsletters, another 12 occasionally, and another 12 perhaps not at all. However as the comments appeared in the newsletters anonymously and the logs were returned to students, there is no record of the authors. The newsletters were designed to be a com-

munal space in which the ideas expressed became topics for discussion for all. Even though some students may not have had their comments published in the newsletter, most were discussing them in their conversations and action logs and were obviously learning from their peers. However, it is possible that some students may have felt slighted when their comments were not published and this point may need teacher attention. Furthermore, since the comments came from near peer role models (Murphey, 1998) they were within most students' ZPDs and were easy for the other students to understand and identify with.

The following section presents student comments which support the suggestion (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000) that there are five movements involved in reaching CCA.

Socialization

Socialization, the first movement toward CCA, emphasizes building rapport. This is seen as a prerequisite for learners to be able to work comfortably together. Evidence for socialization comes from student comments about getting to know each other and their feelings of solidarity with their classmates:

> It was a lot of fun to juggle in the Green Area! When we made a big circle and played juggling, I felt that we are united through juggling. I was very happy. I feel a bigger happiness when many people succeed in a thing (ex. juggling) than when I succeed alone. The more people there are, the greater joy I can get. (nl-5)

The newsletters appeared to be instrumental in helping students develop a sense of community:

> I enjoyed reading it [nl-8] as usual but I felt missed [sad] because this could be the last NL for me. NLs are interesting for students because it is not only the review but also like a real letter from friends. (al-13)

That socialization develops over time and supports learning was expressed well by one student in her final action log:

> At first, I was very nervous, because this course was very difficult, and I couldn't understand well. But gradually, I noticed that I should ask other classmates what I couldn't understand.

> After I noticed it, I could relax very much. The mid-term exam was unusual, but it improved me very much. We could help each other [on the exam] and learned a lot of things. . . This class's system that to tell others what I understand and ask others what I could not understand is very good. (al-13)

A language laboratory with immovable consoles is not a particularly amenable environment for the development of community feelings. However, the limitations of the setting were overcome by regularly changing seat partners, varying partners for the recorded conversations, and providing socializing activities.

Dawning Metacognition

The second movement involves the development of metacognition. Many students expressed a variety of emotions on hearing their first tapes, showing that they were reflecting on their performances:

> Before listening to the tape I was not sure if there would be interesting or valuable parts on it. But actually there are a lot. Taping tells me lots of valuable things about my English. (nl-1)

The students were also surprised at what they could learn from their peers. The passage below appeared in the first newsletter:

> I was most impressed by my second partner [on the tape]. She shadowed almost every key word I said. For example:
> Me: Well, first of all on Friday,
> Her: Friday
> Me: My friend and I went to Takashima-ya
> Her: Takashima-ya, okay
> Me: For the first time.
> Her: How was it?
> She shadowed the most important words in the sentences! So I could see she really understood me while I was speaking. And the other impressive thing about her was "expanding questions!" She asked me "How was it?" after I said Takashima-ya. She tried to expand the topic and it was very helpful to me to continue the conversation. And at the end of the conversation, she said "So, let me summarize" and she summarized what I said briefly!! I was really impressed. (nl- 1)

Midway through the semester, at least some students were grasping the gray areas of SLA research and were reflecting on their emotions as well:

> When I read the HLL [*How Languages are Learned*] book, I was irritated sometimes because it did not have clear answers for each question. However, I realized that as research proceeds, questions tend to have no single or simple answer. And that is why the research is so interesting. (nl-3)

By the end of the semester, several students were extending metacognition beyond the classroom, thus providing evidence of generalizing learning to other contexts. In a final action log I read this insightful reflection that is contributing to my own research on shadowing:

> Young children [in the kindergarten I work in once a week] always shadow. Their eyes are fixed on my lips when I speak English to them. After two or three times of exposure to the phrase or word, they start to move their lips. They are going backwards if we use your concept. They start from silent shadowing to selective and to full shadowing. Once they acquire the new phrase/word they move forward from full to selective to silent. It seems. So Shadowing must be good for learning second language. It's sad we forget how to shadow as we get older. (al-13)

It is suggested that the multiple recursive opportunities afforded by the reflective tools of taping while shadowing and summarizing, action logging, and newsletters facilitated the development of metacognition. Such tools allowed discourse and ideas to be re-observed and analyzed. As Swain (2000a) has pointed out, the act of verbalization is an act of learning and it also serves to externalize thoughts which can then be objects of further reflection. Obviously recording the students' verbalizations on tape and in action logs and newsletters provided the potential for further reflection and learning.

Initiating Choice

The first three movements towards CCA, socialization, metacognition, and initiating choice, can happen from the beginning moments in a new group. However, the teacher can structure activities so that the movements happen more intensively. Teachers can help students who

have had little previous choice in what or how they studied to gradually consider options in the ways they learn. The students in this class were asked to choose a different seat and a different partner in each class. They also had to choose the content of their conversations, although topics were often given in the beginning (e.g., discuss three things you did last weekend). They were often asked to focus on one of the four aspects of SSER (shadowing, summarizing, extending, rejoinders) in their conversations for the day. They chose the points they wanted to highlight in their action logs and they formulated their own questions for the mid-term test. These choices were greatly expanded by the end of the semester, when they created presentations and did their own self-evaluations.

One could rightly argue that these activities were not chosen but were required by the course, that the *instructor* was forcing students to choose. Indeed, many students would have preferred to sit beside a friend for the whole semester. Ultimately, however, this disruption of the students' passive choices and the requirement to recognize the advantages of different choices may have increased their ability to create choices in the future. That some students were creating choices by the end of the course was shown by two students' independent suggestions to change the form of the final assessment. Spurred by their suggestions, the class decided to do group presentations. This developmental sequence is also captured by the student comment below concerning action logging:

> At first (and two years ago in Oral Communication) I didn't like writing Action Log. [Now I understand] by writing action log, I can do "meta-activity," or "meta-my idea." It helps me to try to understand the purposes of activities and think of what I want to do. What I want to do, what a student wants to do, leads my interest. And I can let a teacher know my idea, interest . . . etc. Such things improve the class I attend. (nl-3)

Expanding Autonomy

The fourth movement, expanding autonomy, or taking of greater control over one's learning (termed "self-regulation" in sociocultural theory), is greatly facilitated by reflection on one's own performance. Listening to audio recordings intensifies such reflection by providing the students with performance data, as the comment below attests:

> When I listened to the tape, I noticed something so nice. It was when I talked with my partner and made a mistake. I noticed that I made a mistake and corrected it myself. Before today, I thought I always do not notice when I make a mistake, so I thought I will never correct it without listening to my conversation. But it was not true. I noticed it!! I am not sure whether I corrected myself consciously or not. However, this experience gave me confidence for not being afraid of making a mistake. I also noticed that when I made a mistake, or my partner made a mistake, we both corrected it in shadowing. And, when we heard the correction of our mistakes in shadowing, we noticed that we made a mistake and what the correction was. In this case, we could correct the mistakes very naturally. Therefore, I think it is very important to tell a correction in shadowing when we notice that our partner made a mistake. (nl-6)

It can be suggested that such metacognition leads to autonomy which may first be localized to these activities and only later generalized. Expanding autonomy can carry student learning beyond the classroom and can bridge the classroom with the students' outside lives, as the example below indicates:

> A few weeks ago I had a chance to talk with Singaporeans in English. (I was helping their research work by translating their questionnaire into Japanese.) When we were talking during the break, I realized I was shadowing unconsciously. I shadowed what they said quite often. Before I took this course, I didn't respond with shadowing. But now, shadowing became a kind of habit. I shadowed a last word of the speaker. It didn't sound strange. It was a good way to make sure that I really understood what they said. So, I think using shadowing isn't strange thing to do when you talk with native speakers. I rather encourage everyone to use shadowing when they talk to native speakers! It is a great way to respond to what the speaker said and to make the conversation smooth. (al-13)

The comment below shows the ability to experiment with learning strategies and to search for personally useful strategies as a way to expand one's control over learning. This is also an explicit account of reflection-in-action (Schön, 1987):

> The moment I watched today's video, I felt very nervous because I recalled the first time when I watched it [an excerpt for a few minutes] and I couldn't listen at all and understand at all. But I changed my mind and tried to shadow. [We saw it in three parts with discussion after each.] First I shadowed what the narrator was saying. Shadowing made me able to understand most of it. I was really surprised because I could understand! After watching, we discussed what we watched. At that time, I found that I could understand but there were a lot of parts I couldn't remember in detail. So I decided to write down [take notes] next time. Then I wrote down what I could catch and shadowed. This work was very useful when I discussed it. I could reconstruct easily. In the third part, I tried to read [the outline] while shadowing and writing my own notes. Then after watching, I asked my partner only parts I couldn't catch. This way of learning I found to be very desirable. From now on I will apply this way to as many subjects as possible. (nl-6)

That the students felt safe enough to experiment with different ways of learning, to write about them, and to share them with the group shows that they were comfortable with the group. Publishing such comments in newsletters which were read by all students perhaps inspired even more near peer role modeling (Murphey, 1998).

Critical Collaborative Autonomy

CCA may not be an end state, but rather something that we flow into periodically in our attempts to run our lives as we cyclically travel through moments of intense collaboration, retreat into solitude, reflect deeply about our practices, and drift unconsciously on automatic pilot. The key may be to regularly question ourselves, our beliefs, and what we read and hear from others. At the same time, we need to be brave enough to critically make a stand based on what we know, as in the student comments below:

> One thing that makes me unsatisfied with concerning the attitude of teachers in university is that generally speaking, teachers in a university are apt to prefer to provide more new information they have not taught the students rather than give a supplementary explanation and comments on exams after the tests. It might seem to be based on false beliefs that, since "students learn what they're taught," saying the same thing

> or reflecting on exams is a waste of time. However, that is not true. Even in conventional written exams, students continue to learn. (nl-5)

In the last class the students were given a short article describing a perceived incoherence in the Japanese educational system regarding Japanese university entrance examinations (Murphey, 1999b). It was a critical piece and I was curious to see how the students would react. I should note here that in my view SLA is by its nature political and entrance examinations in Japan, due to their extreme washback effect, tend to pervert SLA processes from the top down. Such topics, to my knowledge, are practically never addressed openly in the teacher-training curriculum in Japanese universities. I contend that, by reading the article and having an attentive collaborative community to communicate with, these student voices were freed perhaps for the first time. Considering that tests of unknown validity act as gatekeepers to universities that put students on the fast track to important social positions and that high school teachers feel chained to this "exam hell," it is an especially apt topic for all SLA and teacher-training courses in Japan. Many students did indeed engage themselves in the discussion and showed deep involvement, and even anger:

> Actually the entrance exams themselves are not practical, I think. I took the exam, and I studied only for it. It was no fun, and not useful. I hope the exams can be changed. (al-13)

> When I was a junior high and high school student, many teachers were thinking about their students very seriously. [However] their concern was only how many students would go to good high schools or universities. (al-13)

> The Japanese entrance exam system produces people who know lots of vocabulary and rules but can't communicate in English. There is a TV show that makes fun of these people. But actually it's not funny. People who are laughing at them can not speak English either. It's not time for laughing. We should change the system. (al-13)

Teachers-to-be were especially concerned about this article as they were seeing the incongruence between what they were learning in methods courses about communicative language teaching and what they were expected to do in school to prepare students for entrance exams.

> In today's situation, students and teachers get too used to accepting the status quo, even if it has contradictions. They might think nothing would be changed. But they are the one who practice and receive education. They should be responsible for their education. And movement from students and teachers do have power to change the system. (al-13)

> It must be really hard, but trying to be faithful to what you believe is a very important thing, I think. (al-13)

> I went to my hometown to take an interview test for "practice teaching." One teacher said, "This school never has oral communication classes." I couldn't believe that! Are they crazy!? But when I read this article, I thought I experienced the last paragraph. An ideal of the Monbusho [Ministry of Education] and actual teaching are different. Teachers should not be satisfied with their way of teaching. Teachers should think (check) students can understand well and enjoy learning. (al-13)

Obviously the students were on different time schedules in their development toward CCA. However, it is crucial for the teacher to find multi-functional tools which provide opportunities for learning at any particular moment. For example, action logging offers the chance for all students to socialize, reflect, and be critical, yet they may be used by different students in particular ways depending on their developmental trajectories. As teachers, our effectiveness may depend in part on equipping ourselves with such multi-functional tools which provide a host of doorways for students. But (to paraphrase a line from the movie *Matrix*) it depends on learners which doors (and in which order) they wish to open.

Conclusion

This description of exploratory teaching and participatory action research is aimed at hypothesis generation rather than testing, and the ideas presented here obviously need further research. It is suggested that the key tools described above allowed students to progress toward CCA and to form a collaborative community of *interthinkers* (Mercer, 2000). The micro-discursive tools of shadowing and summarizing and the reflective tools of action logging and newsletters can be used with practically any group to encourage overlapping zones of proximal development and the creation of shared intermental spaces. These tools

allow students to manifest what their minds are modeling, scaffolding or creating overlapping intermental ZPDs, and allowing a flow between intermental and intramental processing (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1934/1962; Wells, 1999). As Swain (2000b), with reference to Pica (1994), states, "Through negotiation, comprehensibility is achieved as interlocutors *repeat and rephrase* for their conversational partners" (p. 98, my emphasis). Based on student comments, encouraging shadowing and summarizing during communicative activities would seem to ensure greater comprehensibility and jointly scaffolded ZPDs that allow for movement toward CCA. Action logging and newsletters intensify this process. With these tentative findings as support, this exploratory research can be summarized in the form of the following hypotheses:

> 1) The tools of recursion allow students to reveal, construct, restructure, and scaffold understanding recursively and intermentally using their own and their group's verbalizations. The tools allow students to participate more intensively in less threatening ways, and to gain quicker access to more central participation.
> 2) The tools of recursion can create a community intermental space of overlapping ZPDs.
> 3) These intermental spaces facilitate socialization, metacognition, and movement toward CCA.

It might further be hypothesized that teachers' own teaching ZPDs might be better adjusted to student ZPDs by learning what-learners-are-learning (e.g., through action logs), and by letting what-learners-are-learning become part of the subject matter of their courses (e.g., with newsletters) in order to better scaffold learning. As opposed to simply supplying input, this is very close to what van Lier (2000) refers to as supplying *affordances* through:

> [a teacher's ability to] . . . structure the learner's activities and participation so that access is available and engagement encouraged. This brings ecological language learning in line with proposals for situated learning (and 'legitimate peripheral participation') by Lave and Wenger (1991) and the guided participation, apprenticeship, and participatory appropriation described by Rogoff (1995) (p. 253).

Finally, Gee (1996) writes of "Discourses" (with a capital D) as,

> ways of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, believing, speaking, and often reading and writing that are accepted as instantiations of particular roles (or "types of people") by specific groups of people . . . Discourses are ways of being "people like us" (p. viii).

While I was not conscious of this at the outset, I now see this SLA course as a kind of invitation to participate in, and create, several Discourses: (1) the Discourse of the critically collaborative and autonomous language learner, intensively collaborating and taking more control of the learning process; (2) the Discourse of the novice SLA researcher, appropriating some of the perspectives, knowledge, and language of the field through personal experience; (3) the Discourse of the critically aware teacher-learner who reflects on past learning experiences and who dares to question and criticize present situations and construct an image of something better. Gee (1996) further contends:

> Schools . . . ought to be about people reflecting on and critiquing the 'Discourse-maps' of their society, and, indeed, the wider world. Schools ought to allow students to juxtapose diverse Discourses to each other so that they can understand them at a meta-level through a more encompassing language of reflection. Schools ought to allow all students to acquire, not just learn about, Discourses that lead to effectiveness in their society, should they wish to do so. Schools ought to allow students to transform and vary their Discourse, based on larger cultural and historical understandings, to create new Discourses, and to imagine better and more socially just ways of being in the world (p. 190).

Striving to realize critical collaborative autonomy through the tools of SSER recordings, action logging, and newsletters seems to have created Discourses of potential. As professional educators, perhaps our own Discourses of potential lie within our ability to find recursive means to become aware of one another's thinking, to scaffold intermental spaces of overlapping ZPDs, and to create collaborative learning communities.

Acknowledgements

Thanks are due to Kazuyoshi Sato, Robert Croker, Brad Deacon, George Jacobs, and the two anonymous JALT Journal *readers for very valuable interthinking with me. I also received valuable intermentalization from a presentation of these ideas at the Dec 6-8, 2000 Conference on Scaffolding held at the University of Technology, Sydney. Thanks are especially due to my students for sharing their insights and for teaching me, one another, and themselves through "making manifest what our minds are modeling."*

After eleven years at Nanzan University, Professor *Tim Murphey* voluntarily resigned over differences in values concerning their entrance examinations. He has published books with Oxford University Press, Longman, Peter Lang, and MacMillan Language House, and has authored several book chapters and articles in journals, including *TESOL Quarterly, Language Teaching Research,* and *System.*

Notes

1. This article presents some tools of recursion and supports their use by consideration of student written comments, not by actual "first order" transcribed data. This would have been possible, however, especially for the micro-discursive strategies of shadowing and summarizing, through listening to the recorded tapes. Such research has been done by narrow transcriptions and the results support the idea of collaborative intermental ZPDs. For example, see the chapters by Ohta, Swain, Kramsch, and others in Lantolf, 2000.

2. Mind maps are simple web-like drawings with words, icons or pictures which represent larger ideas. The main topic is usually placed in the middle and the subtopics branch out in different directions. For a mind map of this article, I might draw a toolbox at the center of a page and have four branches extending to represent the four tools used. I might have other branches for CCA and the Discourses of potential. In turn, each of these branches might sub-branch and interconnect.

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Reviews

Researching and Applying Metaphor. L. Cameron and G. Low, Editors. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999. 295 pp.

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Metaphor is a major research area in cognitive linguistics, literature, and philosophy, but it has mainly been ignored by applied linguists. Those who have ventured into the territory are pioneers and, to extend the metaphor, pioneers are often misunderstood. They go forth in search of rewards that others do not see or care about, leaving the less adventurous behind in a state of bemusement.

Metaphors tend to highlight aspects of the topics they refer to and conceal others in the process. The metaphor in the preceding paragraph is no exception. It suggests that pioneering research can be rewarding but also difficult for others to follow. At the same time, the metaphor is misleading. It conceals the fact that, from the perspective of other disciplines, applied linguists are not pioneers but newcomers who face the challenge of staking out a claim in densely populated territory.

In the first chapter of *Researching and Applying Metaphor*, Lynne Cameron proceeds to stake such a claim. Her paper is a solid, if daunting, attempt to establish what applied linguistics could contribute to metaphor research. Cognitive science provides Cameron's main point of reference. Cognitive scientists are interested in what goes on in the mind, and they might approach the "pioneer" metaphor above as a realization of the conceptual metaphor LIFE IS A JOURNEY. They would be interested in how this conceptual metaphor guides our understanding of the "pioneer" metaphor, but not necessarily in its linguistic form. Cameron feels that applied linguists should also consider linguistic form and discourse context. With regard to form, the explicit marker "metaphor" foregrounds the "pioneer" metaphor. The metaphor's location at the beginning of this review suggests that it has an attention-getting discourse function.

Raymond Gibbs, a conceptual metaphor researcher, discusses six research guidelines in the book's second chapter. Inevitably, the chapter is colored by his own interests, but the value of his advice extends well beyond conceptual metaphor. Indeed, his very first guideline is that researchers should "distinguish different kinds of metaphor in language" (p. 30). Metaphor ranges from the mundane "I'm at a crossroads" to Robert Frost's "Two roads diverged in a wood, and I–//I took the one less traveled by." Conceptual metaphor theory would approach both of these as linguistic realizations of LIFE IS A JOURNEY, but it would have trouble with certain other forms of metaphor. Gibbs suggests that no current theory can "account for all of the different kinds of metaphor" (p. 36). Consequently, researchers have to be clear about what they are doing and not assume that what is true for one metaphor is true for all.

Graham Low's introductory chapter about metaphor research design is also excellent, especially his discussion of who should identify metaphors in research–the researcher or third-party analysts. Metaphor comes in degrees of conventionality, ranging from "dead and buried" through "sleeping" and "tired" to "active" (Goatly, 1997, pp. 31-38). This means that subtle decisions may be necessary if a researcher wants to work with, say, active metaphors. Low discusses an example of disagreement between analysts and a researcher about what was metaphorical in a short text to illustrate the problem. Four metaphors that the researcher had expected to be identified were not noticed by the analysts. This demonstrates the (familiar) dangers of relying on researchers' intuitions and the value of analysts as "supplementary or alternative identifiers" (p. 55).

Metaphor identification is also a prominent topic in the book's second section, "From Theory to Data," especially in the chapters by Gerard Steen and Lynne Cameron. Steen is known for his work on the processing of literary metaphor, which involved using informants' judgements of metaphoricity. At the time, Steen did not connect these judgements with formal linguistic properties of the metaphors he used. Steen recognizes here that such a link is an "obvious and promising direction of research" (p. 81), and he attempts to make that link with a detailed checklist. The checklist has three levels of analysis, linguistic, conceptual, and communicative, and Steen demonstrates how it works with two metaphors in Bob Dylan's "Hurricane." One of these, "justice is a game," is found to be a conceptually conventional realization of the metaphor LIFE IS A GAMBLING GAME. Linguistically and communicatively, however, the metaphor gains prominence from its position in the sentence it occurs in and from its function in the lyrics as a whole.

Cameron's contribution to this section focuses on the subjective angle of metaphor identification. In her work on children's experiences of metaphorical language she found that children sometimes process apparently non-metaphorical language in a metaphorical way, that is, by interpreting a weather forecaster's "hot spells" as "connected to the domain of witches" (p. 109). Such "asymmetric interpretation" (Goatly, 1997, p. 127) could be readily identified in discussions between Cameron and her young subjects, but more intuitive methods were necessary when she analyzed educational discourse data. In practice this meant including "metaphors" that, "with knowledge of the individual discourse participants, seem likely to be processed metaphorically" (p. 115).

After all this theory the third section, "Analysing Metaphor in Naturally Occurring Data," provides a welcome change of pace with, among others, papers on the relationship between metaphor and perception. Perceptions of teachers in different cultures are one of the topics in Martin Cortazzi and Lixian Jin's chapter. Chinese students, for example, tend to conceptualize teachers metaphorically as "friends" or "parents" and this may cause frustration when their teachers are British. The students may expect these "friends" to volunteer to help them, while the teacher is assuming that help, when needed, will be asked for.

While most of the preceding papers used authentic data, examples of work with constructed metaphors are given in the book's fourth section, "Analysing Metaphor in Elicited Data." Zazie Todd and David Clarke discuss using their "False Transcript Method" to produce manipulated conversations. Low, for his second paper, used manipulated essay introductions and constructed sentences to investigate the acceptability of certain verbal metaphors in academic writing: Can one write that an academic paper *thinks*, *knows*, *believes*, or *argues* something? A group of Low's academic peers mainly rejected "this essay thinks/believes" but accepted "this essay argues/takes the view" (p. 246).

Researching and Applying Metaphor is bound to become required reading for both experienced and inexperienced researchers. The book is particularly strong on theory and methodology, especially the introductory chapters. At the same time, two important criticisms can be made, the first being that the book assumes too much background knowledge. Experienced metaphor researchers will have this but, for newcomers, an outline of the main research traditions would have been invaluable. Although the editors did not include such a chapter, they have published a very good introductory overview elsewhere (Cameron & Low, 1999).

Against the background of Cameron and Low's stated intention of promoting applied linguistic research into metaphor, a second major gap is the lack of an overview of what they see as the most promising research areas. Unfortunately, the book does not compensate for this by giving a sufficient range of examples of metaphor research. There are three chapters on metaphor and perception, for example, but not one on the linguistics of metaphor.

To return to the "pioneer" metaphor, it seems fair to conclude that Cameron and Low have provided excellent guidelines on how to navigate through metaphor country and what pitfalls to watch out for in the process, but that they have not indicated adequately what has drawn others there in the past or what rewards might await applied linguists who venture there in future.

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Language Teaching: New Insights for the Language Teacher. C. Ward and W. Renandya, Editors. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, 1999. 308 pp.

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In April 1998, 120 papers were presented at the annual RELC seminar in Singapore. This anthology contains sixteen of those papers grouped under three main headings: "Focus on the Teacher," "Computers and Language Learning," and "Language Teaching and Learning."

For me the most interesting paper in the "Focus on the Teacher" section was that of Donald Freeman on individual development in an educational setting. Basically Freeman outlines what is meant by reflective teaching and how it is possible to "do the same things differently" in the context of schools. His paper promotes a critical approach to evaluating status quo explanations of what teaching should involve.

In the section on computers, Martin A. Siegel outlines various facets

of a digital learning environment and the section on a "worldboard" system sounds like something from a futuristic space-age movie. Yet perhaps in a few years special eyewear for virtual reality post-it notes and video mailing will be as integral a part of schooling as pen and paper.

If you don't know what "CALL" stands for, Michael Levy will enlighten you. It is "Computer Assisted Language Learning," a topic about which people seem to be highly polarized. Levy outlines a utilitarian view, a middle path. His startling finding that "only about 20% of the rules in grammar checkers work reliably with non-native speakers of English" is a salutary warning against the uncritical incorporation of this particular software feature into the language classroom. Levy's text is insightful, but it would have been easier to read had headings and subheadings been provided.

Anyone who is interested in SLA theory will want to read the papers by N. S. Prabhu and by Merrill Swain. These two noted SLA researchers would probably disagree on some issues such as the value of output and a focus on form in the classroom, but both present excellent papers on their respective topics. Swain focuses mainly on the nature of collaborative tasks and on how to systematically integrate language instruction into content instruction. Realism is emphasized in Prabhu's paper: "Teaching is at Most Hoping for the Best." The author gives a lucid account of both learning and teaching, two intrinsically different processes or activities. It follows that a procedural syllabus is to be preferred over a product syllabus.

The field of pragmatics is amply covered in this anthology. Asim Gunarwan surveys the development of pragmatics within linguistics and analyzes such notions as speech acts, implicatures, and politeness. Jenny Thomas explores ten areas of pragmatics of interest to the language teacher and learner. She offers an analysis of various areas in semantics, pragmatics, and speech act theory. Regarding apologizing in Japanese and English, Thomas notes that differing notions are involved, making this area "notoriously risky." Cognitive aspects of language usage, such as homonymy, polysemy, and possible extensions of meanings are also discussed.

Some of the papers of this anthology are of general interest to language teachers everywhere and others have a more narrow focus. The latter category might include papers on specific topics, such as those on EAP oral communication instruction, teacher supervision, new approaches to grammar in child literacy development, and papers on specific educational settings, namely Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, and Japan.

While Florence G. Kayad's paper offers a Malaysian perspective on language learning strategies, her report is of interest to educators everywhere. It provides a valuable account of what characterizes the good language learner and how to implement effective strategy training. The appendix lists fifty learning strategies under various headings (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social) and is particularly helpful.

Similarly, the paper by Chaleosri Pibulchol on Thai national English textbooks for primary schools is mainly of interest for those involved in education in Thailand, but it may also be of interest to those involved in curriculum design for English language instruction in Japanese elementary schools.

Of more general interest is the paper entitled "Text and Task: Authenticity in Language Learning" by Andrea H. Penaflorida. Drawing on the work of David Nunan, Penaflorida makes a clear exposition on the "indissoluble" bond between text and task. She gives helpful classroom examples and explains concepts like task dependency, authentic materials, and principles of task design. David Crabbe's paper on learner autonomy provides an analysis of various dimensions of autonomy and of how learners individualize their classroom experiences. Rather than simply meaning working alone, autonomy refers to an internal ability to manage one's learning processes. Language curricula should accommodate learner autonomy as an essential learning goal.

Most *JALT Journal* readers are involved in education in Japan and will probably be interested in "Teaching English as an International Language in Japan" by Nobuyuki Honna of Aoyama Gakuin University, Tokyo. Joan Morley's paper on EAP oral communication emphasizes the need to aim for an appropriate level of speech intelligibility rather than a "native-like" proficiency in English. Honna echoes these views, saying that educators and students in Japan need to be more realistic and accept Japanese English as a legitimate variety as long as intelligibility is maintained. A less idealistic attitude should spring from an awareness of the international spread and diversification of English and its role in multinational and multicultural communication. How can such awareness be promoted? Honna suggests expanding the base of participants in the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) program to include speakers of English from India, Singapore, and other "outer circle" regions. Few would take issue with this suggestion, but one assertion made by Honna is problematical. The statement that, in the JET program, "a Japanese teacher of English is expected to cooperate only with a native English speaker in instructing a class" seems erroneous to me. I have participated in the JET program for the past two years

and the message I have received from training programs and seminars was that instruction should always involve team-teaching by equal partners fully cooperating with one another to achieve their pedagogic goals. However Honna's main point still stands. The uncritical Japanese preference for Anglo/American native speaker English is worrisome and initiatives for improvement and reorientation are long overdue. College entrance examinations are becoming more focused on practical communicative competence but they, along with high school teaching, remain very grammar oriented. Honna sees the introduction of English instruction in public elementary schools from the year 2003 as an opportunity for change, and reports positively on results from awareness training sessions. The next generation should not have the Anglophone goal as its guiding light. He adds that the "young ALTs, who can be linguistically and culturally perfectionist," should be given training to help make a more valuable contribution, establishing English as a language for multinational and multicultural understanding. The bottom line is mutual intelligibility.

Overall, this anthology provides insights for language teaching. These may not be cutting-edge new, but no doubt those who attended the RELC seminar in April 1998 were enriched by what they heard.

Issues for Today: An Intermediate Reading Skills Text, 2nd edition. Lorraine C. Smith and Nancy N. Mare. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle, 1995. 253 pp.

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Issues for Today is a reading text consisting of short stories followed by reading comprehension exercises. This book is designed for the intermediate adult ESL/EFL student. The stories require the background knowledge of an adult student and would be inappropriate for younger readers. The chapters can stand alone or be taught in succession.

The book is organized thematically yet each chapter is an independent unit. Chapters 7-12 have dictionary skill-building exercises. The beginning of the chapter contains a story, which is followed by vocabulary and reading comprehension exercises. Independent thought is re-

quired of the students in certain exercises, for example, by asking for background information about their countries. Pair work and dictionary exercises are also abundant within each chapter.

Chapters 7 and 8 are representative of the text and will be reviewed here in detail. The story in Chapter 7, dealing with the criminal justice system, is appropriately challenging to an intermediate non-native speaker of English. The vocabulary is also rigorous in that the words are highly specific to the theme of the story such as "booking a suspect." Many of the words can be more than one part of speech, thus emphasizing the need for examining words in context. Some exercises in the chapter are slightly beyond the capability of an intermediate ESL/EFL student, although the follow-up exercises at the end of the chapter are useful for independent thought and whole-class discussion.

Chapter 8 has a story dealing with the reliability of eyewitnesses. The lexicon is again very specific yet was helpful in giving students a more detailed vocabulary and dictionary skill exercises effectively evaluated students' comprehension of context. However, the number of exercises in the chapter is not adequate, so teachers will have to create their own exercises to supplement the text since, without supplementation, an intermediate class could finish the chapter's exercises in three or four classes and achieve only spotty comprehension of the story. The follow-up exercises in chapter 8 were again a breath of fresh air for students who may have become tired of the reading analysis grind.

Some aspects of the book may present difficulties for the classroom teacher. These include the dictionary skill-building exercises that ask students to find where the part of speech is located in a dictionary entry, what the context is, and which entry is applicable to the context. Teachers may find that an intermediate level class is quite adept with a dictionary so these activities are below the students' level. On the other hand, the information organization exercises tend to be too difficult for an intermediate level class.

Aspects of the book that readers will enjoy are the stories and the included vocabulary. The stories are challenging at the intermediate level and students must read critically to understand the story. As mentioned, the vocabulary is related to the particular subject matter, yet is beneficial for intermediate students because it helps them to build vocabulary in specific areas. The exercises are helpful for students to gain reading comprehension skills.

This book will give students a useful knowledge of issues and topics within the United States. Students may further develop their reading comprehension, dictionary, and context clue-gathering skills. Creative thought on the part of the student is a welcome addition to *Issues for Today*. This text, even with its shortcomings, can be a valuable reading text for such a class.

The Rise and Fall of Languages. R. M. W. Dixon. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997. vi + 169 pp.

Reviewed by
Marshall R. Childs
KLC College

If you have not read Dixon's latest book, drop everything and read it today. Then you will be able to conduct yourself calmly among the uncertainties that beset language workers. You will understand how languages change and interact, and you will have your own opinions about issues that exercise linguists.

This is not a careful book. It contains no academic hedging. It is written with the passion of a front-line fighter in the war to understand languages. If Dixon drops a comment about theory it is a pungent insight wrested afresh from battle. Perhaps for that reason, this book does more to clarify theoretical issues than any other linguistics book I know of. Two major services are to place Universal Grammar in context and to set us straight about family trees of languages.

Dixon's treatment of formal theoreticians is deliciously wicked. There is, he says, a pernicious myth, wrong on all counts, that the profession of "theoretician" (people who do not gather data themselves but rather interpret data) is "more difficult, more important, more intellectual, altogether on a higher plane than the basic work undertaken by the descriptivists" (p. 134). Formal "theories" (he names 20 of them, beginning with Transformational Grammar), grounded only in the few languages known to the formalists, come and go with alarming rapidity. Surely "if a discipline can spawn, reject and replace so many 'theories' (in most cases without bothering to actually write a grammar of a language in terms of the 'theory') then it could be said to be off balance" (p. 132).

Dixon's discussion of family trees starts with the insight that groups of languages go through periods of equilibrium and periods of turbulence ("punctuations"). During periods of punctuation (such as, for example, the known history of Indo-European languages), languages split, evolve, die, and can be observed to descend from other languages. Under these circumstances, the metaphor of a family tree of languages may be applied. During periods of equilibrium (such as in Australia from about 50,000 years ago until the British invasion in 1788), languages in contact tend to borrow from each other, sometimes grow apart, and sometimes become more alike.

In the 100,000-year (or so) history of human languages, equilibrium must have been much more common than punctuation. What, then, of putative family trees of languages such as those of Ruhlen (1991)? Their applicability is limited to periods when languages have undergone fission but not fusion. Accordingly, the idea of drawing up a single family tree of human languages is about as practical as trying to reconstruct a game of billiards by studying which balls ended up in which pockets.

Dixon criticizes such scholars as Greenberg (e.g., 1987), who, armed with only the family tree metaphor, find too many familial relationships. When Greenberg-style "mass comparison" turns up fascinating similarities among languages, Dixon says, the proper behavior is not to declare family trees but to investigate both family relationships and influences.

Dixon points out that professional linguists share many assumptions and understandings but have never troubled to find a name for what they believe together. He proposes the name Basic Linguistic Theory (BLT) for this body of lore. BLT consists of descriptive and analytical techniques, methods of comparison, and criteria for drawing conclusions. A linguist-in-training, then,

> must be taught the principles of Basic Linguistic Theory, and also receive instruction in how to describe languages (though Field Methods courses). The ideal plan is then to undertake original field work on a previously undescribed (or scarcely described) language, and write a comprehensive grammar of it as a Ph.D. dissertation (p. 130).

Dixon reserves his greatest passion for a final plea for fieldwork. He presents a view that Whorf (1956) would have recognized:

> Each language encapsulates the world-view of its speakers—how they think, what they value, what they believe in, how they classify the world around them, how they order their lives. Once a language dies, a part of human culture is lost—forever (p. 144).

Dixon predicts that, at the current pace of extinction, in a few hundred years there will be only one language in active use in the world. The situation is urgent. He calculates that to describe a language takes one Ph.D. candidate three years and requires about U.S. $200,000. He pleads for a revolution in values to produce money, students, and right-

minded professors.

For his part, loaded with immunizations and malaria pills, as he finished this book Dixon was setting off for the Amazon to investigate some particularly interesting languages there.

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Alphabet to Email: How Written English Evolved and Where It's Heading. Naomi Baron. London: Routledge, 2000. xiv + 316 pp.

Reviewed by
John Katunich
Nihon University

Naomi Baron's *Alphabet to Email: How Written English Evolved and Where It's Heading* is a survey of the English language focusing on the history of the conventions of English writing. While it does not reach as far back as the emergence of the English Roman alphabet, the book details a fascinating history of written English from medieval scribing through the relatively recent development of authorial copyright and the impact of technology. The narrative is accessible to nonhistorians and highlights how written English conventions as basic as punctuation are products of a social evolution that is very much still in progress.

Baron intends this book for "teachers of composition (as well as grammar and literature), [and] teachers (and students) of English as a second language," among others (p. xiii). Addressing the relationship of written and spoken Englishes, the book is particularly relevant to teachers of ESL within the context of debates over prescriptivism in writing. While Baron does not "solve" the debate, her history gives an abundance of examples of earlier debates during the last two centuries. Additionally, in a history of authorial copyright in written English, Baron

offers a narrative that explains how copying another's words changed from requisite flattery (in the 17th century) to unethical plagiarism (arising from British court rulings of the early 18th century). This is particularly valuable to the ESL and composition instructors teaching in contexts where collaborative writing, Internet publishing, and postmodernism are once again questioning the sacredness of authorial ownership of a text.

Alphabet to Email's inquiry into the most recent changes of written English use, catalyzed by telegraph, telephone, and computer-mediated communication proves insightful. Its history of written English in the 20th century, specifically in the United States, shows a gradual convergence of written and spoken English conventions. Baron argues that the telegraph and telephone began this trend by replacing written letters with speech in a variety of social functions. The speed allowed by typewriters and then PC word processors also made it possible to "write as we speak." Finally, e-mail conventions of the late 1990s have further blurred the distinction between written and spoken English, raising the question of whether email is "spoken language transmitted by other means" or "like a letter sent by phone" (p. 247). The trend is so marked, according to Baron, that it is possible for her to envision a world where written English as a form distinct from spoken English may cease to be used.

The entire narrative of the book presages Baron's discussion of the contradictions in email language usage. She introduces language contact theory to explain the "schizophrenic" quality of email. It can be understood as a "creole" of sorts emerging from individuals "bilingual" in spoken and written English, operating in a new "social circumstance" and performing functions often conveyed in speech through the medium of writing. While not entirely satisfying, this theory offers new insight into the relationships between writing and speaking as displayed in new technology.

As a resource for language teachers in Japan, *Alphabet to Email* is easy and interesting. However, it also offers a thought-provoking discussion of where written English may be heading. Baron provokes the reader to ask how one can teach written English that is authentic and relevant within a context of profound technological and linguistic change. While the book does not offer a solution, it does give a lucid description of earlier ideological, social, and technological change that one can use to inform current teaching of English composition.

Rights to Language: Equity, Power, and Education. Robert Phillipson, Editor. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2000. 310 pp.

Reviewed by
David P. Shea
Keio University

There is a growing recognition that not only do the world's linguistic resources need to be protected, but that ethnolinguistic minorities have been threatened by the rapid transnational spread of information, media, and markets. At the same time, consideration of minority language rights is often excluded from professional discussion about English language education. This is partly because of the tendency to define language teaching in strictly linguistic terms, divorced from social and political conditions of actual use, and partly because questions of power often prove threatening to English speakers, especially English teachers. It is all too common to hear English uncritically promoted as the world's *lingua franca* and the indispensable means of economic advancement. However these overdrawn formulations make it all the more important for EFL professionals to discuss issues of minority language rights. This collection of essays, a *Festschrift* to Tove Skutnabb-Kangas, would be a good place to start the discussion.

The book is a collection of essays written by a broad range of sociolinguists, discourse analysts, linguists, and language teachers who have worked with and/or been influenced by Skutnabb-Kangas, one of the most impassioned advocates for the linguistic rights of ethnolinguistic minorities around the world. There are 47 contributions covering a range of geographical contexts from Scandinavia and the U.S. to South Africa and the Pitcairn/Norfolk Islands. All of the contributions are short (most are 6 to 8 pages) and accessible, written in a style that comes from a "distillation" of personal experience, and grounded upon the principles of linguistic diversity and social justice long advocated by Skutnabb-Kangas.

The essays successfully blend theoretical discussion with micro-level case studies of the defense/loss of indigenous and threatened languages. There are too many contributions to mention in a brief review, but some are particularly instructive. Maffi introduces the Non-governmental organization Terralingua (www.terralingua.org) and points out that preserving the natural environment inevitably involves protecting cultural diversity. De Varennes delineates how international law

has increasingly come to acknowledge linguistic rights of minority cultural groups.

Chapters by Alexander and Heugh are particularly useful to help understand South Africa's constitutional recognition of eleven official languages and complement Desai's "imagined" conversation with parents cautioning that additive bilingual education is "not a matter of either African languages or English" (p. 176). Jokinen points out that the rights of deaf children to education in sign language are neglected in most countries of the world and, even where legally stipulated, the necessary "segregation" of Deaf children that would allow peer interaction often does not take place.

Municio-Larsson reviews the 1976 Swedish Home Language Right which officially recognized mother tongue education but which has been undermined by ideological resistance and lack of implementation on the local level. Clyne points out that Australia's multilingual policy adopted in 1992 has also been attenuated by a utilitarian emphasis on languages with instrumental economic value coupled with efforts to protect the advantage of the monolingual majority. Annamalai outlines India's constitutional provisions of language rights, yet notes how most government bureaucrats hold the view that minority languages are "not worthy of use in education, and the interests of their speakers [would] be served best by learning the majority language and . . .ignoring their mother tongue" (p. 9). Similarly, Garcia describes the dominant trend in the United States to redefine bilingual education as remedial and transitional, while the concurrent promotion of academic standards has worked to handicap minority language speakers with requirements that conflate standards with standardization.

Not all the essays are critical examinations of involuntary language shift and discursive practices that have "excluded or marginalized" ethnic minorities, rendering them invisible and reproducing discrimination (e.g., papers by van Dijk and Hussain). Some are encouraging reports of attempts to promote additive bilingualism. Pura describes Finnish parents in Sweden who established their own Finnish-medium elementary schools to develop a "strong bilingual, bicultural identity" (p. 221), and Huss describes her own family's efforts, in the face of warnings from "unsympathetic doctors and teachers" (p. 188), to raise her children bilingually. Cummins introduces three exemplary schools in New Zealand, the U.S., and Belgium that "empower" language minority cultural identity by supporting multilingual language development. But it is Vuolab's personal insight that is perhaps most moving:

> In my young days people used to command us not to speak or use my mother tongue, the Sami language. We were told

> we would not even get as far as the nearest airport, in Lakselv, if we used our native language. Now I can inform people who hesitate to use their own mother tongue: The struggle is really worthwhile. You can get to the other side of the Earth by being yourself (p. 16).

Phillipson's "integrative" chapter concludes the volume, synthesizing the key themes of the collection, and pointing to a non-imperialist model of the linguistic rights that rejects the "invisible and covert" (p. 276) agenda of globalized economy and affirms the rights of all peoples to use and maintain their mother tongue(s) and, at the same time, to learn the wider language(s) of social communication in additive (not subtractive) educational contexts. While this position is a challenge to the "monolingual myopia" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1984) that infects Japan and most "developed" industrial democracies (what Skutnabb-Kangas terms A-Team countries), Phillipson draws on Said's notion of the "committed intellectual" who shares responsibility to "confront orthodoxy" rather than reproduce it (p. 265).

With its impassioned interdisciplinary focus and truly global scope, this book is an inspiring introduction to the issue of language rights, invaluable for the sociolinguistics classroom as well as the individual scholar interested in engaging more deeply with the challenge of language diversity.

Reference

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1984). *Bilingualism or not: The education of minorities*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Information for Contributors

All submissions must conform to *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy and Guidelines.

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JALT Journal, the refereed research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (*Zenkoku Gogaku Kyoiku Gakkai*), invites practical and theoretical articles and research reports on second/foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese and Asian contexts. Submissions from other international contexts are accepted if applicable to language teaching in Japan. Areas of particular interest are:

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3. cross-cultural studies
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5. teacher training
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MULTILINGUAL MATTERS

STUDIES IN JAPANESE BILINGUALISM

Mary Goebel Noguchi *(Ritsumeikan University)*
and **Sandra Fotos** *(Senshu University)*

Studies in Japanese Bilingualism helps dissolve the myth of Japanese homogeneity by explaining the history of this construct and offering twelve empirical studies on different facets of language contact in Japan, including Ainu revitalisation, Korean language maintenance, creative use of Ryukyuan languages in Okinawa, English immersion, and language use by Nikkei immigrants, Chinese "War Orphans" and bicultural children, as well as codeswitching and language attrition in Japanese contexts.

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In this Issue

Articles

Three articles are included in the main section of this issue. Naoko Taguchi offers some insights into second language learners' strategic mental processes during a listening comprehension test through her analysis of a post-test strategy questionnaire. Gordon Robson and Hideko Midorikawa examine the internal reliability of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990) using the ESL/EFL version in Japanese translation. They use interviews with participating students to investigate the ability of participants to understand the metalanguage used in the questionnaire as well as the appropriateness of some items for a Japanese and EFL setting. Sae Matsuda and Peter Gobel investigate the possible relationship between general foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) and foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) in the Japanese classroom and examine the reliability and validity of previously published measurement scales (the FLCAS and the FLRAS) for Japanese learners.

Perspectives

A rationale for Japanese-to-English literary translation for courses in EFL college programs in Japan is described by James W. Porcaro. Based on relationships across languages and across the modalities of L1 reading and L2 writing, the author demonstrates its effectiveness in developing students' written expression in English.

Reviews

Reviews in this issue are a review in Japanese of a Japanese book by Sumio Tsuchiya and English reviews by Joseph Tomei, Frank E. Daulton, and Robert Mahon. Topics covered in books reviewed include a survey of literature in SLA research and foreign language teaching, English language teaching practices, Japanese loanwords, and critical applied linguistics.

From the Editors

With this issue the new editorial team takes over the challenge of upholding the *JALT Journal* tradition of excellence. We are especially grateful to outgoing editor Sandra Fotos for the model she provided throughout her tenure as editor and her support and assistance throughout the editorial transition. From this issue, Nicholas O. Jungheim is the new editor, Donna Tatsuki takes over as the associate editor, and Sayoko Yamashita becomes the Japanese editor. We are also pleased to welcome former editor Sandra Fotos to the Editorial Advisory Board. We offer our deepest gratitude to departing Board members Charles Adamson and Bernard Susser for their many years of service to the language teaching community through their work with the *JALT Journal*.

Conference News

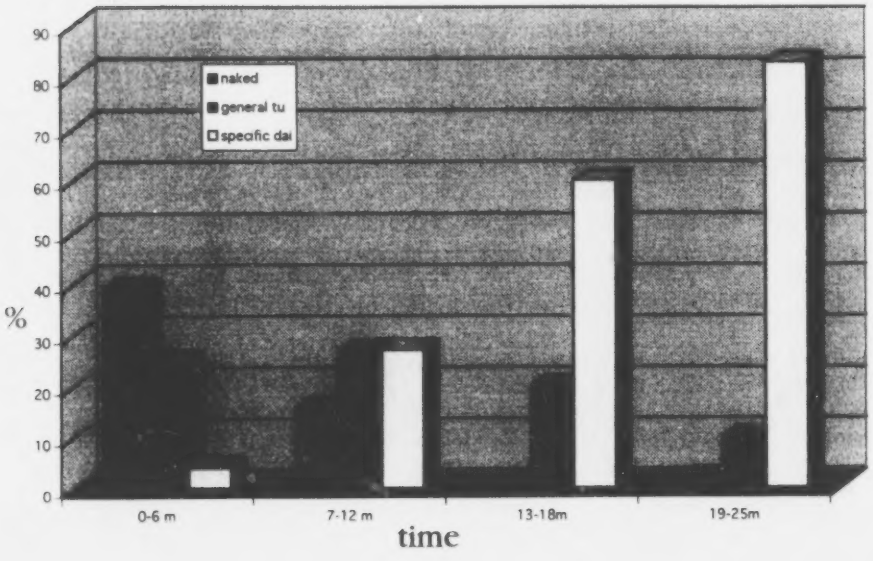
The Fourth Pan-Asian Conference and Eleventh International Symposium and Book Fair on English Teaching will be held November 8-10, 2002, at the Chien Tan Overseas Youth Activity Center, Taipei, Taiwan R.O.C. The conference theme is "ELT in Asian Contexts: Four PCs in the 21st Century." For further information please contact Johanna E. Katchen, Department of Foreign Languages, National Tsing Hua University, Hsinchu 30043, Taiwan, 886-3-5718977 for fax or e-mail at <katchen@mx.nthu.edu.tw>. The deadline for abstracts is December 31, 2001; notification of acceptance is March 15, 2002; the complete paper is due July 15, 2002; and payment of preregistration fee for presenters is due September 15, 2002.

Corrections

The running head on the article by Lynne Hansen and Yung-Lin Chen in Vol. 23 (1) should have shown Ms. Chen's family name instead of her given name. The running head should have read "Hansen & Chen." The second halves of Charts 1 and 2 on pp. 98-99 were inadvertently cut. The full charts are included below. We apologize to the authors and our readers for any inconvenience that this may have caused.

Chart 1: Classifier Suppliance for -dai Elicitation

Acquisition Data



Attrition Data

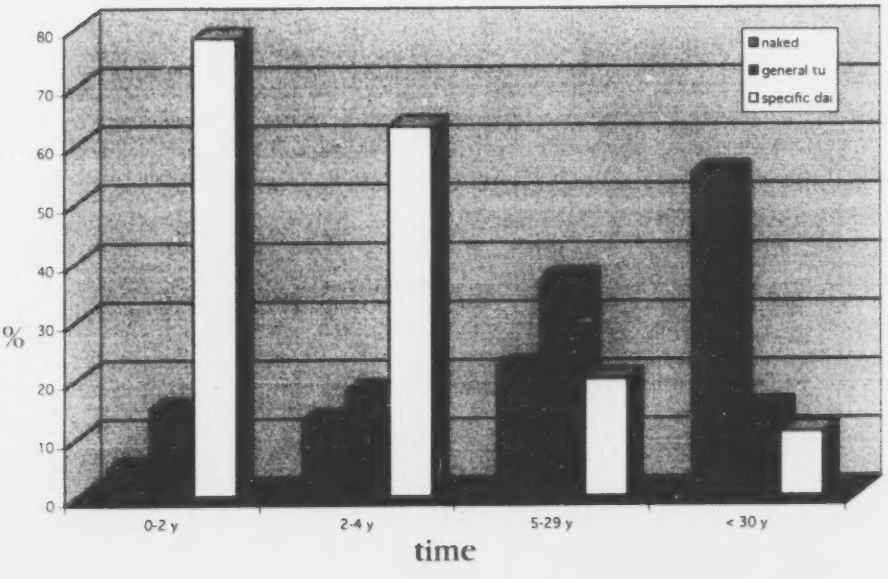


Chart 2: Classifier Suppliance for -wa Elicitation

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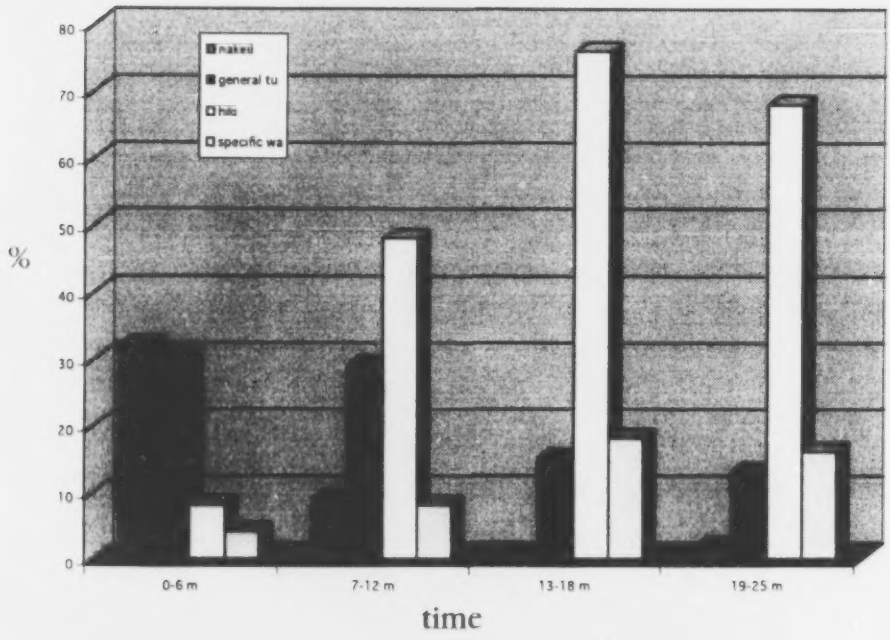

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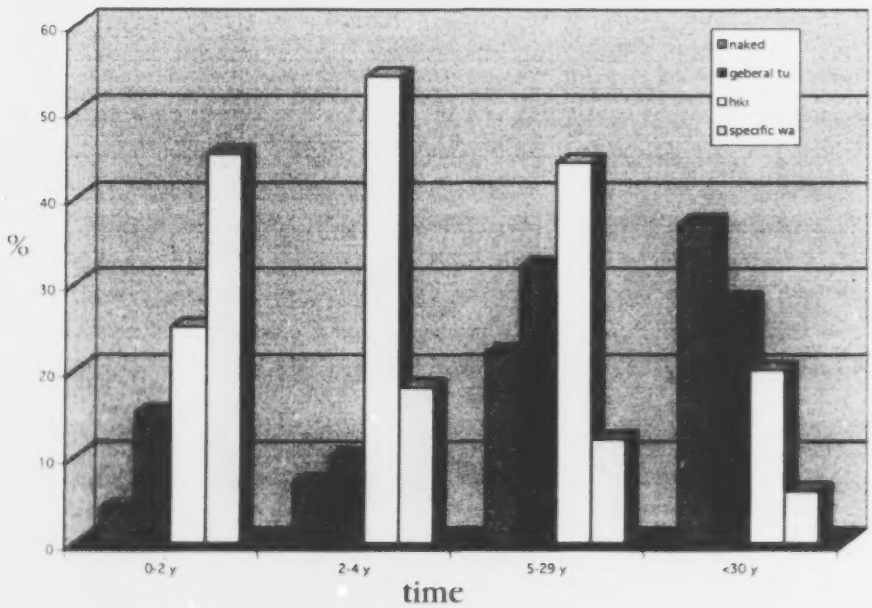

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Articles

L2 Learners' Strategic Mental Processes during a Listening Test[1]

Naoko Taguchi
Minnesota State University-Akita, Japan

This study offers some insights into second language learners' strategic mental processes during a listening comprehension test. Fifty-four Japanese college students (26 males and 28 females) in an intensive English program took an English listening test and completed a strategy questionnaire immediately after the test. The questionnaire consisting of 42 Likert-scaled items and four open-ended questions addressed the students' perceptions of listening strategies used for recovering from comprehension breakdown, compensating for comprehension, and reducing testing anxiety. The questionnaire also asked about the elements that caused comprehension difficulty for the students. The results of the Likert-scaled item section revealed a statistically significant difference between proficient and less proficient listeners in their perceived use of top-down strategies and reported elements of listening difficulty, but no difference in their use of repair, affective, or bottom-up strategies. Analyses of the open-ended responses showed that proficient listeners identified a greater range of strategies.

本研究は、集中英語課程に在籍する日本人大学生５４名（男子２６名、女子２８名）の英語のリスニングテスト受験時におけるストラテジーを、テスト終了直後に行ったアンケート調査により明らかにしようとしたものである。アンケートは４２のリカートスケール項目と４つの記述式項目から成っており、質問は学生がテストの最中にどのようなストラテジーを使用したか、具体的には効果的に英語を聞き取るため、あるいはテスト不安を少なくするためにどのようなストラテジーを使用したか、また、どのような要素が聞き取りを困難にしたかなどについて聞いた。リカートスケール項目の分析の結果、テスト得点の高い学生と低い学生とでは、トップダウンストラテジーの使い方とリスニングを困難にする要素に違いがあることが分かったが、リペア、アフェクテイブ、ボトムアップストラテジーの使い方には違いは見られなかった。記述式項目の分析からは、テスト得点の高い学生はより幅の広いストラテジーを使っていることが分かった。

Early interest in L2 listening research stemmed from a theory that mere exposure to comprehensible input would enhance listening skills and promote language acquisition (Krashen, 1985). Recently, this exclusive attention to input has shifted to how learners process the input. Understanding what strategies learners use and what difficulties they experience has become an integral part of listening research. Information gleaned from such research is considered useful because it provides better insights into learners' listening ability and helps make their listening efficient. Thus, there is a growing interest in clarifying listeners' mental processes, identifying facilitative strategies, and incorporating them into classroom activities (Mendelsohn, 1995; Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Vandergrift, 1999). Although previous research has examined listeners' metacognitive processes during different tasks, little research has been done to investigate strategies used while taking a listening test. Since the testing situation could have a considerable impact on learners' strategy use, it is important to understand what successful listeners actually do during a listening test. Thus, the purpose of this study was to find out if there were differences between proficient and less proficient listeners in their strategic mental processes during a test.

Background

Research in listening comprehension strategies has evolved in the course of a number of studies in the field of language learning strategies (O'Malley, Chamot, & Walker, 1987; Oxford & Crookall, 1989; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Language learning strategies are defined as deliberate techniques employed by learners to enhance the use of the target language information (Oxford, 1990). Previous research has identified three strategy categories: cognitive, metacognitive, and affective, and has revealed that the choice of a strategy is greatly influenced by learner proficiency (Conrad, 1985; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rost & Ross, 1991).

Cognitive strategies are problem-solving strategies that learners employ to manipulate their learning tasks and facilitate acquisition of knowledge or skills (Derry & Murphy, 1986). Examples of cognitive strategies in the field of listening include predicting, inferencing, elaborating, and visualization. Previous research has largely focused on two types of cognitive strategies, bottom-up and top-down, and confirmed that proficient students use more top-down strategies than less proficient listeners (Clark, 1980; Conrad, 1985; O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998). Vandergrift's (1998) study of French learn-

ers showed that weak learners translated more and allocated more attention to decoding individual words, while strong listeners focused on larger chunks. Overreliance on bottom-up processing seemed to cause overloading of short-term memory and discouraged the use of more important strategies such as predicting or inferencing. Vogely (1998) recently investigated the listening anxiety of college students of Spanish. The subjects focused on understanding and translating every word they heard, and they reported frustration and anxiety when they could not translate everything. Bottom-up processing such as word-by-word decoding could make listeners anxious and consequently hinder their listening process.

Another type of strategy, metacognitive, is a management technique that learners use to control their learning through planning, monitoring, evaluating, and modifying (Rubin, 1987). Baker and Brown (1984) distinguished two aspects of metacognitive ability: knowledge on cognition (i.e., knowing 'what') and regulation of cognition (i.e., knowing 'how'). The first aspect relates to the learners' conceptualization about their listening process, namely their awareness of what is going on and what is needed to listen effectively. Previous research has examined learners' persistence when encountering comprehension difficulty as a factor influencing effective listening. Learners' persistence was related to two types of metacognitive strategies: self-management (i.e., controlling language performance) and self-monitoring strategies (i.e., checking one's comprehension) (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). According to O'Malley et al. (1989), strong listeners use more repair strategies; when comprehension fails, strong listeners make an effort to redirect their attention back to the task quickly and keep on listening actively, while weak listeners stop listening further.

According to Nagle and Sanders' (1986) model of listening comprehension, when raw speech enters the brain, the attention stage plays an important role in retaining the data in short-term memory, narrowing the focus, and initiating the information processing. Attention is an indispensable step for listening, as no storing and sorting of information could begin without it. Thus, attention recovery may influence successful comprehension. Proficient listeners show more persistence when listening through their active use of repair strategies.

The last category, affective strategies, includes attempts to enhance positive emotional reactions toward language learning (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). Oxford (1990) identified four types of facilitative socio-affective strategies: seeking social support, lowering anxiety, self-encouragement, and taking emotional temperature (i.e., averting negative emotions and making the most use of positive ones). The socio-

educational model (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992, 1993) stressed that the learning context is directly related to learners' social-psychological factors: how learners feel and react to the learning experience. Therefore, the strategies used for affective control over learning experiences are considered to play an important role in L2 learning. Vandergrift (1996, 2000) documented that junior/senior high school students of French used more affective strategies as their course level increased. Aneiro (1989) also reported a significant correlation between low anxiety and high listening ability, suggesting that the use of affective strategies could facilitate listening.

In sum, preceding studies identified a variety of listening strategies and confirmed that proficient listeners used more metacognitive strategies such as self-monitoring or self-directing, and top-down cognitive strategies such as elaboration and inferencing. A positive relationship was also found between the use of affective strategies and listener proficiency.

While a vast body of research provides a reasonably well-formulated analysis of the listeners' strategic process and its relationship to listening ability, questions remain as to how listeners of different skill levels compare in different listening situations. Previous research has focused exclusively on classroom listening activities, and little research has been done to investigate other listening settings, such as testing situations, to understand learners' strategic involvement in the process. A testing situation could exhibit considerably different task characteristics and demands. Tests used for tracking, promotion, or certification purposes could cause considerable anxiety because the outcomes of the tests have a direct impact on the lives of the test takers. In a testing situation where learners are expected to perform accurately under time constraints, they may be discouraged from using certain strategies such as risk taking or monitoring. Strategies for affective control and concentration, on the other hand, might surface as strong, general test taking strategies. Therefore, it is important to find out whether the previous claims made about various listening strategies are confirmed in a testing situation. Such investigation will add to a growing body of literature focused on the relationship between strategy use and task characteristics (Cohen, 2000).

Information on learners' strategic involvement during test taking could provide additional insights into the processes that learners use to derive correct answers (Bachman, 1990; Cohen, 1998). There is growing interest in analyzing test taking from a strategic perspective because such information could help us understand what test items are really testing and what difficulties the test takers encounter (Buck, 1990;

Yi'an, 1998). Such an investigation will supplement traditional test analysis by providing insights into why and how individual items are answered correctly.

Furthermore, in most research, learners are designated as proficient or less proficient listeners based on a separate measurement (e.g., a course grade, general language test, or teacher evaluation), but not based on their performance on the specific listening task to which they applied their strategies. Since information on learners' strategies and their abilities comes from different sources, the relationship between the two variables may be considered indirect. Thus, investigating how strong learners listened during a test on which they achieved a high score may show a more direct relationship between strategy use and listening ability. Although several studies have investigated the relationship between the use of specific strategies and test performance (Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1996), the corpus of such data is still limited. Few studies have documented that frequent use of particular strategies is directly associated with an increase in score. Thus, additional research in this area could add to our understanding.

Finally, listeners' evaluations of which strategies are difficult to apply or what makes a text difficult could enhance our understanding of listeners' conceptualizations of the listening process. As previous literature states, certain textual elements (e.g., recognizing combinations of words, dividing the stream of speech, morphological complexity) cause comprehension difficulty and affect strategy use (Rubin, 1994; Vogely, 1995). Therefore, the relationship between learners' strategy choice and their confidence in using the strategies is worth investigating.

Purpose

The current study examines strategic mental processes of Japanese learners of English during a listening test, focusing on two subproblems: the types of listening strategies used and the reported elements of listening difficulty. The subproblems were explored by the following five research questions and the researcher's alternative hypotheses:

RQ1. Are there differences between proficient and less proficient listeners in their perceived use of repair strategies?

H1. Proficient listeners use more repair strategies than less proficient listeners.

RQ2. Are there differences between proficient and less proficient listeners in their perceived use of affective strategies?

H2. Proficient listeners use more affective strategies than less proficient listeners.

RQ3. Are there differences between proficient and less proficient listeners in their perceived use of top-down compensatory strategies?

H3. Proficient listeners use more top-down strategies than less proficient listeners.

RQ4. Are there differences between proficient and less proficient listeners in their perceived use of bottom-up compensatory strategies?

H4. Proficient listeners use fewer bottom-up strategies than less proficient listeners.

RQ5. Are there differences between proficient and less proficient listeners in their reported elements of listening difficulty?

H5. Proficient listeners report less listening difficulty than less proficient listeners.

Method

Participants

The participants were 54 first year Japanese students enrolled in the Intensive English Program (IEP) at a branch American university in northern Japan. There were 26 males and 28 females with an average age of 18.7 and a range of 18 to 26. The IEP is divided into two parts: the Focal Skills Program and the English for Academic Purposes Program. The initial part of the IEP, the Focal Skills Program, consists of three modules: Listening, Reading, and Speaking/Writing. The objective of the Focal Skills Program is to help students first achieve proficiency in receptive skills (i.e., listening and reading), prior to production skills (i.e., speaking and writing). The participants in this study were first year students enrolled in the first four-week session of the Listening Module. They received 20 hours of English instruction per week aimed at developing their listening skills. Prior to placement into the module, they had received at least six years of formal English education in Japan, between two to four hours per week on the average. However, due to the instructional emphasis on grammar, the participants' overall listening ability was considered as beginning to intermediate level.

Materials

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in order to address the reliability of the listening questionnaire and revise the questionnaire accordingly. The participants in the pilot study were 39 males and 34 females enrolled in the same Focal Skills Listening Module a year before the main study. At the end of the first four-week session, they took the Focal Skills Listening Test (Focal Skills Resources, 1990) and completed a listening questionnaire in Japanese consisting of two parts: Likert-scaled items and open-ended questions.

The Likert-scaled items were on an ordinal scale ranging from Strongly Agree (5) to Strongly Disagree (1). The 30 items were divided into 4 categories: repair, affective, and compensatory strategies, and listening difficulty. Repair strategies (six items) were defined as techniques used to recover from comprehension breakdown. The three affective items were from the socio-affective strategies (Oxford, 1990): lowering anxiety, self-encouragement, and taking emotional temperature (i.e., averting negative emotions). Compensatory strategies consisted of five bottom-up and five top-down strategies that were used to facilitate the comprehension process. Bottom-up strategies included attending to smaller units of the text. Top-down strategies included using contextual information or prior knowledge to comprehend the main idea of the text. Difficulty area included a set of textual elements such as sound-letter correspondence, relating vocabulary to meaning, text gist, or speed of speech.

The items in the repair, compensatory, and difficulty categories were directly taken from the Metacognitive Awareness Strategy Questionnaire (MASQ) (Carrell, 1989). The MASQ was originally developed to analyze L2 learners' reading process. Vogely (1995) adapted it to analyze the listening process of L2 Spanish learners. The three affective strategies were added to the MASQ by the researcher in order to account for the testing situation. The MASQ items were translated by the researcher and administered in Japanese. Another Japanese instructor of English checked the quality of the translation.

The second section of the questionnaire had four open-ended questions corresponding to the four sub-categories of the Likert-scaled item section. The questions asked learners to report repair, affective, and compensatory strategies, and the areas of listening difficulty.

The questionnaire was revised based on the reliability assessment. Item analysis was conducted in order to check the degree of consensus regarding the direction of each questionnaire category (i.e., posi-

tive/negative response). Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated between item scores and total category scores. According to Mueller (1986), a zero or negative correlation indicates that the item is discriminating respondents in a different way from the total score or working against the discrimination, and thus is subject to revision. Jaeger (1993) also states that correlation coefficients lower than 0.40 indicate weak relationships. In the pilot study, all items had correlation coefficients between 0.50 and 0.80 and thus were not revised.

Internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire was estimated using the Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula (Brown, 1996). The adjusted full-questionnaire reliability was 0.73. The reliability estimates for the five sub-categories were 0.51, 0.33, 0.79, 0.68, and 0.88 for repair, affective, top-down, bottom-up, and difficulty area, respectively. Due to the low reliability, the number of items in repair, affective, and compensatory categories was increased.

The open-ended section provided information to decide what items to add to each section. The students who achieved a high score on the listening test were identified by using a mean split (n = 34), and their responses to each strategy category were compiled. The strategies that were frequently reported by the students were added to each category.

Listening Questionnaire

The revised questionnaire had 42 Likert-scaled items and 4 open-ended questions (Appendix 2). The Likert-scaled items consisted of eight repair, eight affective, seven top-down, eight bottom-up, and eleven difficulty items (see Appendix 1 for the table of specifications). When administered in the present study, the internal consistency reliability was 0.80 for the full questionnaire, using the Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula. The reliability estimates were 0.73, 0.73, 0.83, 0.70, and 0.86 for repair, affective, top-down, bottom-up, and difficulty area, respectively.

The same open-ended questions used in the pilot study were asked in the main study. As Chamot, Kupper, and Impink-Hernandez (1988) note, quantitative analyses of the listening process can offer only a superficial picture. Thus, the purpose of this open-ended section was to obtain qualitative data on the participants' mental processes while listening and to supplement the information gleaned from the quantitative analysis. The four questions were:

1. What did you do when you didn't understand something during the test?

2. What did you do to relax for the test?
3. What did you focus on in order to compensate for your listening during the test?
4. What kinds of things were difficult for you while listening?

Focal Skills Listening Test

The Focal Skills Listening Test (Focal Skills Resources, 1990) was used to designate strong and weak listeners. The test also functioned as listening input on which the participants could reflect in terms of their mental processes while responding to the questionnaire items. The test was approximately 30 minutes long and had 60 short dialogues followed by yes-no questions. It is a commercially available test designed for the Focal Skills Program. The published K-R 21 reliability estimate of internal consistency of the test is 0.91, and the standard error of measurement (SEM) is 3.02. The test aims to assess listeners' basic comprehension skills over a variety of daily topics in family, school, and social situations. The test score produces an interval scale from zero to 60, one point being assigned per correct answer. In the current study, the reliability estimate was 0.75 using K-R 21, and the SEM was 3.65.

Procedures

The study was conducted in the spring of 2000 at the end of the first four-week session of the academic year in the IEP. The participants took the Focal Skills Listening Test in the listening lab at their university in 30 minutes. Immediately after the test, they were asked to complete the listening questionnaire in approximately 15 to 20 minutes. The written directions for the questionnaire were in Japanese. The subjects were reminded to think about the listening test they had just taken while responding to the questionnaire items.

Analysis

This study compared the strategic mental processes of proficient and less proficient Japanese learners of English during a listening test. Listening proficiency, the independent variable in the study, was operationalized as the scores on the Focal Skills Listening Test with an interval scale between zero and 60. Scores were dichotomised into two groups by a mean split representing high and low scoring groups. Thus, learner proficiency was treated as a nominal variable with two levels: proficient and less proficient.

Learners' strategic mental process was operationalized in terms of

their perceived listening strategy use and listening difficulty. The dependent variables were the four areas of listening strategies: repair, affective, top-down compensatory, and bottom-up compensatory strategies. Listening difficulty was the fifth dependent variable. The five variables were measured by the Likert-scaled items of the listening questionnaire, which had an ordinal scale of one to five. The ordinal scores were transformed into interval scores by computing the sum of the item scores within each variable category. A high interval score indicated frequent use of the specific strategy or increased perception of difficulty. The five dependent variables were also addressed qualitatively by summarizing the responses to the open-ended section of the questionnaire.

The responses to the Likert-scaled items were compared between proficient and less proficient listeners by using a one-tailed *t* test for two independent samples. The *t* test was selected because it is a type of parametric test that is more powerful for hypothesis testing than non-parametric tests (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). In addition, data met the underlying assumptions for using the *t* test. There were two levels of one independent variable to compare, and each subject was assigned to only one group. The data were considered as continuous because the ordinal scores of the questionnaire items were summed within each category. In addition, normality of score distribution of each group was confirmed by the Shapiro-Wilks's test at the significance level of 0.01. Finally, the Levene's test was applied to check the assumption of homogeneity of variance. The variance of the two groups was equal in each of the five variables tested at a significance level of 0.01.

Prior to applying the *t* test for the statistical analyses, based on the previous conventions, the significance level was set at 0.05. However, because the current study used five *t* tests (i.e., one *t* test per dependent variable), the significance level was adjusted to 0.01 using the Bonferroni correction by dividing the alpha level of 0.05 by the total number of comparisons (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991; Jaeger, 1993; SPSS, 1998). Thus, the statistical results reported in this paper are based on the adjusted alpha level of 0.01 in order to avoid the error of rejecting the null hypothesis when it should not have been rejected (Brown, 1990).

Results and Discussion

This section presents descriptive statistics of the Focal Skills Listening Test and the listening questionnaire, and discussions of the first and second subproblems.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the Focal Skills Listening Test and the listening questionnaire are presented in Tables 1 and 2. The mean and median of the test were 37.00. The mean and median were equivalent, and the scores had a normal distribution ranging from 23.00 to 56.00. Because the mean is the best measure of central tendency, the participants were divided into two groups by a mean split. Twenty-eight students who scored 37 or higher were called proficient listeners (mean = 43.36, *SD* = 4.68), and the students who achieved a score of lower than 37 (*n* = 26) were called less proficient listeners (mean = 31.23, *SD* = 3.79).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Focal Skills Listening Test

Group	*N*	Mean	Median	*SD*	Min	Max	Range
Total	54	37.00	37.00	7.03	23	56	0-60
Proficient	28	43.36	41.50	4.68	37	56	
Less proficient	26	31.23	32.00	3.79	23	36	

Note: *N* means the number of participants. The test had 60 items in total, so the range means the lowest and highest score possible.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Listening Questionnaire

Category	*K*	Mean	Median	*SD*	Min	Max	Range
Repair	8	29.53	30.00	4.12	20	39	8-40
Affective	8	25.10	25.00	5.58	14	39	8-40
Top-down compensatory	7	25.94	27.00	4.86	16	35	7-35
Bottom-up compensatory	8	26.26	26.00	4.01	18	35	8-40
Difficulty	11	35.53	37.00	7.30	18	50	11-55

Note: Each Likert-scaled item had an ordinal measurement of 1-5, so the range refers to the lowest and highest score possible in each strategy category. *K* means the number of questionnaire items in each category. The number of participants was 54.

Subproblem One: Are There Differences in Perceived Strategy Use?

Subproblem one in this study asked whether there were differences between proficient and less proficient listeners in their perceived use

of repair, affective, top-down, and bottom-up listening strategies. This subproblem was addressed quantitatively and qualitatively, based on the results of the Likert-scaled item section and the open-ended question section.

Likert-Scaled Item Section

Based on the previous literature, it was hypothesized that proficient listeners use more repair, affective, and top-down strategies and fewer bottom-up strategies. Having met the underlying statistical assumptions, the responses to the Likert-scaled items were compared between proficient and less proficient listeners by using the one-tailed *t* test for two independent samples (a = 0.01, adjusted alpha level according to the Bonferroni correction). As shown in Table 3, the *t* test results revealed a significant difference in the use of top-down strategies only ($t = 2.53$, $p < 0.01$), with a moderate effect size of 0.70 based on the Cohen conventions (Cohen, 1988; Howell, 1997).

Table 3: *t* Tests for Repair, Affective, and Compensatory Strategies

Strategy category	Group	Mean	*SD*	*t* value (one-tailed)
Repair	Proficient	30.50	3.94	1.85
	Less proficient	28.44	4.18	
Affective	Proficient	25.00	5.34	-0.15
	Less proficient	25.20	5.93	
Top-down	Proficient	27.46	3.82	2.53**
	Less proficient	24.24	5.40	
Bottom-up	Proficient	26.75	4.30	0.92
	Less proficient	25.72	3.82	

Note: $^{**}p < 0.01$.

Although the *t* test results showed that significantly more proficient listeners used top-down strategies, there seems to be a great discrepancy among the individual top-down strategies. Table 4 summarizes the percentages of the proficient and less proficient listeners who chose Strongly Agree (5) or Agree (4) for each Likert-scaled top-down item.

Among the seven strategies, "understanding the overall meaning" (Item 23) received the strongest response (80% or more), while only 25% or fewer of the students in both groups reported "relating each conversation to prior experience" (Item 38). In addition, proficient listeners used some strategies much more frequently than less proficient listeners. Approximately 80% of the proficient listeners were in favor of "paying attention to the speakers' tone of voice and intonation" (Item 27), while the percentage of the less proficient listeners was less than 30%. Similarly, "imagining the setting" (Item 13) and "attending to the tone of conversation" (Item 28) were employed notably more often by proficient listeners, suggesting their effective use of pragmatic and contextual clues.

Table 4: Percentages of the Learners Who Chose Agree/Strongly Agree for Each Top-Down Strategy

Questionnaire items	Proficient	Less proficient
8. I tried to predict the questions coming after each conversation.	75.0	60.0
13. I tried to imagine the setting of each conversation.	78.6	56.0
23. I focused on understanding the overall meaning.	97.2	80.0
27. I paid attention to speakers' tone of voice and intonation.	78.6	28.0
28. I paid attention to the overall tone of the situation.	85.7	64.0
38. I tried to relate each conversation to my own experience in order to understand the conversation.	25.0	20.0
39. I was thinking about the relationship between the speakers.	60.7	60.0

The post hoc analysis of bottom-up strategies showed a similar tendency (Table 5). Certain bottom-up strategies were used notably more often than others. "Trying to find familiar vocabulary" (Item 7) received the strongest response from both groups (80% or more), while other strategies such as "focusing on grammatical structures" (Item 25) and "paying attention to particular parts of speech" (Item 16) received weak responses (approximately 30% or less). These descriptive analyses suggest that individual top-down and bottom-up strategies, rather than the dichotomized strategies, could be factors contributing to effective listening. Specific strategies may work differently in distinguishing successful and unsuccessful listeners.

Table 5: Percentages of the Learners Who Chose Agree/Strongly Agree for Each Bottom-Up Strategy

	Questionnaire items	Proficient	Less proficient
6.	While listening, I paid attention to the vocabulary that was repeatedly used in the conversation.	60.7	76.0
7.	While listening, I was trying to hear familiar vocabulary.	89.3	80.0
12.	I used Japanese partially (e.g., word translation).	60.7	52.0
16.	I paid attention to particular parts of speech (e.g., verbs).	32.1	24.0
18.	I focused on understanding the details of the conversation.	35.7	28.0
20.	I translated.	39.3	24.0
25.	I focused on the grammatical structures.	21.4	8.0
31.	I focused on understanding the meaning of each word.	57.1	32.0

Open-Ended Responses

The participants' responses to the open-ended questions were compiled and compared between proficient and less proficient listeners. Tables 6 through 8 display the mean frequency of repair, affective, and compensatory strategies reported. Proficient listeners reported a greater variety of strategies in all categories than less-proficient listeners. Although both groups reported that they guessed meaning when their comprehension failed (Table 6), proficient listeners further elaborated how they guessed (i.e., guessing from tone of conversation, speakers' voice/intonation, and test questions).

Table 6: Mean Frequencies of Repair Strategies Reported by the Learners

Q: What did you do when you didn't understand something?		Proficient	Less proficient
1.	I attended to the next segment.	0.04(1)	0.05(1)
2.	I just guessed.	0.11(3)	0.23(6)
3.	I guessed from the context (before and after).	0.25(7)	0.23(6)
4.	I guessed from the tone of conversation.	0.18(5)	0.00(0)
5.	I guessed from speakers' tone of voice and intonation.	0.04(1)	0.00(0)
6.	I guessed from vocabulary.	0.21(6)	0.19(5)
7.	I guessed from the question.	0.07(2)	0.00(0)
8.	I tried not to dwell on the part I didn't understand.	0.18(5)	0.15(4)
	Total frequency	(30)	(22)

Note: The numbers in the parentheses represent raw counts.

Table 7: Mean Frequencies of Affective Strategies Reported by the Learners

Q: What did you do to relax for the test?	Proficient	Less proficient
1. I wasn't nervous.	0.25(7)	0.05(1)
2. I spoke with my American friends before the test.	0.14(4)	0.05(1)
3. I chewed gum.	0.00(0)	0.08(2)
4. I was singing my favorite songs in mind.	0.04(1)	0.08(2)
5. I took a walk or exercised before the test.	0.07(2)	0.15(4)
6. I kept saying to myself, "I can pass the test."	0.07(2)	0.00(0)
7. I tried not to think that it's a test.	0.14(4)	0.00(0)
8. I focused my eyes on one point.	0.04(1)	0.05(1)
9. I had a cup of coffee before the test.	0.04(1)	0.05(1)
10. I took a deep breath.	0.04(1)	0.00(0)
11. I was thinking about something fun.	0.00(0)	0.05(1)
12. I closed my eyes.	0.07(2)	0.20(5)
Total frequency	(25)	(18)

Table 8: Mean Frequencies of Compensatory Strategies Reported by the Learners

Q: What did you focus on to compensate for listening?	Proficient	Less proficient
1. I tried to concentrate intently on listening.	0.40(11)	0.46(12)
2. I imagined the settings of the conversations.	0.14(4)	0.08(2)
3. I focused on nouns and verbs in the conversations.	0.04(1)	0.00(0)
4. I tried to find familiar vocabulary.	0.07(2)	0.00(0)
5. I tried to build confidence as a native speaker.	0.04(1)	0.00(0)
6. I paid attention to the speaker tone.	0.04(1)	0.00(0)
7. I decided on the answer quickly so that I can be prepared for the next conversation.	0.04(1)	0.00(0)
8. I tried not to miss the beginning portion of the conversation.	0.00(0)	0.04(1)
Total frequency	(22)	(15)

One of the most notable differences in the affective strategies is that considerably more proficient listeners reported that they were not nervous about the test (Number 1 in Table 7). This may be because strong listeners had confidence in their ability or already knew how to control their test anxiety. Other affective strategies such as positive self-talk (Number 6) and being less conscious about the test (Number 7) were also observed exclusively in the responses of proficient listeners. In addition, a larger portion of proficient listeners reported that they spoke with their American friends in order to mentally prepare for the test (Number 2).

In the area of compensatory strategies, proficient listeners identi-

fied more different types of strategies (Table 8). The reported strategies included both top-down (i.e., imagining the settings, paying attention to the speaker tone) and bottom-up (i.e., focusing on nouns and verbs, trying to find familiar vocabulary). Similar to the findings from the Likert-scaled section, individual strategies in both categories of cognitive strategies seem to deserve attention.

Subproblem Two: Are There Differences in Difficulty Elements?

The second subproblem was related to how proficient and less proficient listeners evaluated the listening task in terms of difficulty.

Likert-Scaled Item Section

The results of the one-tailed *t* test for two independent samples revealed that proficient listeners reported less listening difficulty, $t(52) = -4.68$, $p<0.01$, with a high effect size of 1.30 (Table 9).

Table 9: *t* Test for Difficulty Elements

Group	Mean	SD	*t* value
Proficient	31.79	6.69	-4.68**
Less proficient	39.72	5.51	

Note: $^{**}p < 0.01$.

Table 10 summarizes the percentages of the proficient and less proficient listeners who chose Agree (4) or Strongly Agree (5) for each "difficulty" item. Overall, considerably more weak listeners felt the listening task was difficult, and this tendency was consistent for all individual items. For both listener groups, "understanding the details of the conversation" (Item 26) and "relating each conversation to one's own experience" (Item 30) were difficult strategies to employ. Previous post hoc analyses on compensatory strategies also showed that the learners did not use these strategies. In addition, approximately 90% of the less proficient listeners felt "understanding pronunciation of each word" (Item 4) and "remembering the content of the conversation" (Item 41) were difficult. However, a majority of the proficient listeners felt that these two elements did not cause comprehension difficulty.

Table 10: Percentages of the Learners Who Chose Agree or Strongly Agree for Each Difficulty Element

	Questionnaire items	Proficient	Less proficient
4.	Pronunciation of each word.	46.4	92.0
5.	Understanding the main idea of each conversation.	25.0	72.0
11.	Imagining the setting of each conversation.	21.4	52.0
14.	Keeping up with the speed of the tape.	25.0	64.0
17.	Understanding the combination of words into phrases.	35.7	76.0
19.	Predicting the question coming after each conversation.	60.7	92.0
26.	Understanding the details of the conversation.	85.7	96.0
30.	Relating each conversation to my own experience.	85.7	84.0
34.	Understanding the meaning of each word.	35.7	56.0
41.	Remembering the content of the conversation.	42.9	88.0
42.	Knowing when I understood something and when I did not.	35.7	68.0

What is noteworthy in the present results is that, for less proficient listeners, there seems to be a greater gap between their perception of compensatory strategies and their actual application of the strategies. The post hoc analysis of top-down strategies revealed that 80% of the less proficient listeners focused on getting the overall meaning of the text; however, more than 70% of the same group also reported that understanding the main idea was difficult (Item 5). Other top-down strategies, "imagining the setting" (Item 11) and "predicting the question" (Item 19), showed similar tendencies, indicating that weak listeners could not use these strategies easily. It is suggested that being strategic means not only knowing which strategies to use but also how to use them effectively. The current results concur with Baker and Brown's (1984) distinction between declarative knowledge (i.e., knowledge of "what") and procedural knowledge (i.e., knowledge of "how"). Knowing that a certain strategy is useful may precede the ability to use it routinely.

Open-Ended Responses

Table 11 summarizes the mean frequencies of the difficulty elements reported by the participants. One notable finding is that considerably more weak listeners said "everything" was difficult (Number 8), suggesting that they could not pinpoint the specific areas of listening difficulty. This may be due to their low listening proficiency because some of them listed "speed of the conversation" as one of the difficulty ar-

eas. On the other hand, several proficient listeners identified vocabulary and specific linguistic features (i.e., parts of speech, grammatical functions) as difficulty areas.

Table 11: Mean Frequencies of Difficulty Elements Reported by the Learners

Q: What kinds of things were difficult for you while listening?		Proficient	Less proficient
1.	Concentration.	0.07(2)	0.00(0)
2.	Understanding sounds.	0.04(1)	0.05(1)
3.	The speed of the conversation.	0.11(3)	0.38(10)
4.	Remembering the content.	0.00(0)	0.05(1)
5.	The combination of words into phrases.	0.04(1)	0.10(2)
6.	Vocabulary.	0.43(12)	0.27(7)
7.	Hearing the conversation only once.	0.07(2)	0.00(0)
8.	Everything.	0.04(1)	0.31(8)
9.	Conversation is too long.	0.00(0)	0.05(1)
10.	People's names.	0.00(0)	0.05(1)
11.	Nouns and verbs.	0.04(1)	0.00(0)
12.	Grammatical functions (e.g., negation markers).	0.04(1)	0.00(0)
	Total frequency	(24)	(31)

Conclusions and Implications for Future Research

This study examined the conscious and strategic mental processes of Japanese learners of English during a listening test. The study was motivated by previous findings showing that strong and weak listeners have different mental and strategic involvement while listening. The study represented an attempt to find out whether such findings could be confirmed in a different listening situation such as testing. The study also provided a process-oriented perspective to language testing. It supplemented the traditional outcome-oriented testing practice by documenting the actual internal processes that the learners go through in order to arrive at answers. Interpretations of the results and implications for future research are presented below.

Interpretation of Perceived Strategy Use

The first four research questions addressed whether learners of different proficiency levels differ in their use of four types of strategies: repair, affective, top-down, and bottom-up. The results supported previ-

ous findings that suggest that proficient listeners use more top-down strategies, but did not support the claims about repair, affective, and bottom-up strategies. The present study revealed that strategic tendencies could interact with task/context characteristics (e.g., task goal, demands), in addition to interacting with listener characteristics (e.g., proficiency). Replicating previous findings from classroom contexts, the current findings showed that, in a testing situation, learners might demonstrate different preferences toward specific strategy categories. During testing, learners tend to be strongly motivated toward the task and are concerned about the accuracy of their listening. As a result, test takers might actively try to sustain their concentration and to listen carefully for details. Similarly, in a testing situation, where the psychological demand is the major controlling element, affective strategies could function as general test taking strategies and are employed frequently regardless of learners' proficiency levels. Therefore, previous generalizations made about strategy use comparing strong and weak listeners may not apply to different listening settings with different demands.

This study also found that proficient learners use significantly more top-down strategies, suggesting that this strategy category might be a factor contributing to effective listening on the current task. This finding adds to the limited body of existing literature because, for this particular listening task, an explicit link was established between the use of certain types of strategies and performance on the listening test. An increase in the use of top-down strategies was found to be related to an increase in test scores, providing insights into how and why test items were answered correctly, in addition to who got the items correct.

Another implication gleaned from the current findings is the variation among individual strategies. Despite the statistical evidence that strong listeners use more top-down strategies, the post hoc analyses demonstrated that particular top-down and bottom-up strategies were used much more frequently by the proficient group than the less proficient group. The findings imply a need to look into individual compensatory strategies, rather than the dichotomized categories. Specific top-down and bottom-up strategies may contribute differently to discriminating successful and unsuccessful listeners. Looking into the existing variety in each compensatory category may be important to capture a picture of truly influential strategies.

The responses to the open-ended questions documented a wider range of repair, affective, and compensatory strategies reported by the proficient listeners. Strong listeners seem to be able to identify and

elaborate the specific tactics they used. They seem to be more aware of their own listening process and to have better retrospective observation of their strategy use. As Wenden (1986) notes, appropriate choice and use of strategies requires metacognition. Future strategy research should expand the analytical categories to describe what learners know about their learning processes, and what they are capable of expressing.

The present study identified, both quantitatively and qualitatively, a set of strategies that are more strongly favored by high scoring listeners, and thus potentially contribute to effective listening. Additional research might provide evidence of whether or not teaching these strategies to weak listeners can actually improve their performance in testing. Such inquiry has great potential because it could provide an empirical basis to investigate, that is, whether strategies are actually teachable. It could offer a potential cause-effect link between strategy use and listening performance. A problem of strategy research is that it is difficult to determine the cause and effect relationship between strategy use and L2 performance, whether using certain strategies leads to better performance or vice versa. Therefore, instructional studies that can show which strategies actually improve performance will expand our understanding of the learning process. The set of potentially influential strategies identified in the present study could serve as a base line for future investigations.

Interpretation of Listening Difficulty

The fifth research question asked whether there are differences between proficient and less proficient listeners in their reported elements of listening difficulty. The results support the previous claim that structural and textual elements are sources of listening difficulty for less proficient listeners. These elements deserve instructional attention and are potential areas to be overcome in order to improve listening performance. Similar to strategy use, the responses to the open-ended questions revealed that proficient listeners possessed greater metacognitive awareness of their comprehension difficulty during the test.

The existing difference between the difficulty area and the actual use of strategies found in this study implies that comprehension difficulty could be the factor that discourages weak listeners from applying strategies successfully to their listening tasks. As shown in the post hoc analyses, although a large number of weak listeners reported trying to use top-down strategies, they also felt those strategies were diffi-

cult to use.

The gap between the perceived use and actual application of strategies may stem from the learners' lack of basic listening ability or experience in applying the strategies. The difference between proficient and less proficient listeners could lie in their ability to actually use the strategies rather than knowing which strategies they should use. Knowing which strategies to use and being able to use the strategies successfully may be two separate skills. Listeners' basic proficiency or strategy practice could greatly influence their ability to actually utilize the strategies in listening tasks. The present findings imply a need for further research to investigate the degree of confidence that proficient and less proficient listeners have when using the strategies, not only the types of strategies they are trying to employ.

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Notes

1. An earlier version of this paper was presented at the annual Second Language Acquisition Research Forum (SLRF) at the University of Wisconsin in September 2000.

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Appendix 1

Table of Specifications of the Likert-Scaled Item Section of the Listening Questionnaire

Listening Strategies (31 items total)	Item Numbers
A. Repair (metacognitive)	3, 10, 15, 24, 32, 33, 35, 37
B. Affective	1, 2, 9, 21, 22, 29, 36, 40
C. Compensatory (cognitive)	
C.1. Top-down strategies	8, 13, 23, 27, 28, 38, 39
C.2. Bottom-up strategies	6, 7, 12, 16, 18, 20, 25, 31
Difficulty Elements (11 items total)	4, 5, 11, 14, 17, 19, 26, 30, 34, 41, 42

Note: The Likert-scaled items have an ordinal measurement of 1-5.

Appendix 2
Questionnaire (Translation)

* This questionnaire is asking about the listening test you just finished. Please indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the appropriate number. Thank you very much for your cooperation!

During the listening test.....

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. During the test, I kept encouraging myself.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I tried to enjoy listening.	5	4	3	2	1
3. When I didn't understand something, I tried not to worry about it so much.	5	4	3	2	1
4. It was difficult to understand the pronunciation of each word.	5	4	3	2	1
5. It was difficult to understand the main idea of each conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
6. While listening, I paid attention to the vocabulary that was repeatedly used in the conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
7. While listening, I was trying to hear familiar vocabulary.	5	4	3	2	1
8. I tried to predict the questions coming after each conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
9. During the test, I tried to forget I am taking the test.	5	4	3	2	1
10. When I didn't understand something, I guessed the meaning from the context.					
11. It was difficult to imagine the setting of each conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
12. I used Japanese partially (e.g., word translation).	5	4	3	2	1
13. While listening, I tried to imagine the setting of each conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
14. It was difficult to keep up with the speed of the tape.	5	4	3	2	1
15. When I didn't understand something, I gave up trying to comprehend.	5	4	3	2	1
16. While listening, I paid attention to particular parts of speech (verbs, nouns).	5	4	3	2	1
17. It was difficult to understand the combination of words into phrases.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I focused on understanding the details of the conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
19. It was difficult to predict the question coming after each conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
20. I translated.	5	4	3	2	1
21. While listening, I did something special to relax.	5	4	3	2	1
22. I kept saying to myself, "I can pass the test."	5	4	3	2	1
23. I focused on understanding the overall meaning of the conversation.	5	4	3	2	1

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24. I lost my concentration when I didn't understand something, but I recovered my concentration immediately.	5	4	3	2	1
25. I focused on the grammatical structures.	5	4	3	2	1
26. It was difficult to understand the details of the conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
27. I paid attention to the speakers' tone of voice and intonation.	5	4	3	2	1
28. While listening, I paid attention to the overall tone of the situation.	5	4	3	2	1
29. Before the test, I did something to relax.	5	4	3	2	1
30. It was difficult to relate each conversation to my own experience.	5	4	3	2	1
31. I focused on understanding the meaning of each word.	5	4	3	2	1
32. When I didn't understand something, I lost my concentration and couldn't hear the rest of the conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
33. While listening, I guessed the meaning from the vocabulary I know.	5	4	3	2	1
34. It was difficult to understand the meaning of each word.	5	4	3	2	1
35. When I didn't understand something, I guessed the meaning from the tone of the conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
36. I was thinking about doing something fun after the test.	5	4	3	2	1
37. When I didn't understand something, I found myself stuck on the segment I didn't understand.	5	4	3	2	1
38. I tried to relate each conversation to my own experience in order to understand the conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
39. While listening, I was thinking about the relationship between the speakers.	5	4	3	2	1
40. I listened to English before the test in order to get mentally prepared for the test.	5	4	3	2	1
41. When I heard a question, it was difficult to recall the content of the conversation.	5	4	3	2	1
42. While listening, it was difficult to know when I understood something and when I did not.	5	4	3	2	1

* Please write your responses to the following questions.

1. What did you do when you didn't understand something during the test?

2. What did you do to relax for the test?

3. What did you focus on in order to compensate for limitations in your listening ability during the test?

4. What kinds of things were difficult for you while listening?

How Reliable and Valid Is the Japanese Version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)?

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This study looks at the internal reliability of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990), using the ESL/EFL version in Japanese translation. The results of the Cronbach's alpha analysis indicate a high degree of reliability for the overall questionnaire, but less so for the six subsections. Moreover, the test-retest correlations for the two administrations are extremely low with an average shared variance of 19.5 percent at the item level and 25.5 percent at the subsection level. In addition, the construct validity of the SILL was examined using exploratory factor analysis. While the SILL claims to be measuring six types of strategies, the two factor analyses include as many as 15 factors. Moreover, an attempt to fit the two administrations into a six-factor solution results in a disorganized scattering of the questionnaire items. Finally, interviews with participating students raised questions about the ability of participants to understand the metalanguage used in the questionnaire as well as the appropriateness of some items for a Japanese and EFL setting. The authors conclude that despite the popularity of the SILL, use and interpretation of its results are problematic.

本研究は、Oxford(1990)の外国語学習ストラテジー・インベントリー(SILL)のEFL/ESL用日本語版の内部信頼性及び構成概念妥当性を実験と統計によって検証したものである。クロンバック・アルファ検定による内部信頼性については、インベントリーの全項目は全体としては信頼性が高かったが、6タイプに下位分類されたストラテジーについては信頼性が低かった。また、インベントリーを用いたテスト・再テストの相関は低く、全項目では平均寄与率19.5パーセント、下位分類項目では25.5パーセントであった。構成概念妥当性検定のための説明的因子分析の結果は、6タイプのストラテジーが15因子に細分化されたこと、さらに、全項目を6因子に分けた結果、それぞれの因子が無秩序に分類される結果となった。最後に、インタビューによって、この実験に参加した被験者学生にインベントリーの各項目の内容理解について確認した結果、日本語がわかりにくく判断しいくい記述、あるいは日本のEFLの状況では理解しにくい記述があることが明らかになった。以上のすべてから、SILLの実用的評価にもかかわらず、それを用いること、また、そこから得た結果の解釈には問題が含まれているというのが、本研究の結論である。

The use of self-report instruments to investigate various aspects of individual learner differences is a common and accepted practice in the field of second language acquisition research. As a consequence, a large number of such instruments have been developed and used over the years. These include the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (A/MTB) (Gardner and Lambert, 1972), the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986), and the instrument under discussion here, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990). However, despite the wide acceptance and use of these instruments, issues such as their reliability and validity are often lost in the enthusiasm to find out what students really feel or believe. Although a given instrument may have been rigorously developed and even subjected to various measures of reliability and validity, when it is translated into another language or used in a cultural setting different from the one originally intended, it must once again be rigorously examined, as suggested by Griffee (1999).

This report will present the initial results of the researchers' attempts to provide reliability and validity data on the SILL in a Japanese university setting. This study is grounded in the researchers' numerous other attempts to validate other Japanese translations of measures of individual learner differences, such as motivation, anxiety, learning styles, learning beliefs, and learning strategies. Reliability is typically measured through statistics such as Cronbach's alpha or multiple administrations of a test with the same subjects, both of which are used here. Regarding validity, although in the past other methods of validating have been put forward, recently Chapelle (1994) and Messick (1989) have persuasively argued for validity to be condensed into a single, general approach where the focus is on the instrument as a construct. As the measures typically used in this type of research have been self-report questionnaires in which items were grouped into categories or subscales, researchers have favored factor analytic validation for the various groupings or categories assigned to the questionnaire items. The use of factor analysis to confirm a theorized grouping of items is a long-established practice (Guilford & Fruchter, 1973), especially in the field of personality research, where it has been used to validate self-report questionnaires for over 50 years (see for example Allport, 1937; Guilford, 1940; McCrae, 1989). Therefore, this will be the approach taken in validating the six groups of strategies making up the SILL.

What is Reliability and Validity?

There are various approaches to testing and confirming the reliability

and validity of a given research instrument. We can define the reliability as the proportion of the variation in test scores that is true variation and not error (Bachman, 1990; Brown, 1988). Typically, when measuring reliability, the items on the questionnaire are subjected to one or more types of statistical measurement. The most commonly employed statistic is Cronbach's alpha, which measures the internal consistency of a test. Another approach is to obtain simple correlations between test items of a measure that is given to the same population two or more times. This is referred to as test-retest reliability.

In general, the validation of a self-report instrument is much more difficult and in the past involved several different types of validity such as face validity, content validity, construct validity, factor analytic validity, and criterion-related validity. However, in an insightful article Messick (1989) points out that while it is important to validate the method of data collection, the more crucial area is to validate the inferences, interpretations, and actions taken based on the scores derived from the data. Moreover, Chapelle (1994) argues that "construct validity is central to all facets of validity inquiry," and as an ongoing process, there is no once and forever validity (p. 161).

From a statistical point of view, there are several ways to confirm the construct validity of an instrument. The use of correlation approaches and factor analysis has been noted previously. Typically these approaches involve using several tests or questionnaires that are believed to represent a construct, such as language-learning strategies, and then confirming the validity of the items through high correlations. If the correlations are high enough, then we can infer that they measure the hypothesized construct. Factor analysis can be used when measures for several different constructs are being used, such as for motivation, strategies, and personality. Subsequently, their loadings on distinct factors confirm that they measure separate aspects of learner behavior. A second use of factor analysis is to break a measure into subgroupings, such as the six hypothesized parts of the SILL, and then factor them to see if these divisions are valid. Evidence of a measure's validity can also be confirmed experimentally or quasi-experimentally through related outcomes using, for example, a measure of language learning strategies and scores on some measure of language learning such as the TOEFL Test. This would indicate not only that the measure was validly measuring strategies, but also that such strategies were useful.

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is a self-report questionnaire for determining the frequency of language learning strategy use. It consists of 50 items with five Likert-scale responses of *never or almost never true of me, generally not true of me, somewhat true of me, generally true of me, always or almost always true of me*. Based on a factor analysis of an earlier, larger version, Oxford organized the SILL into six strategy subscales: (a) Memory Strategies (9 items), (b) Cognitive Strategies (14 items), (c) Compensation Strategies (6 items), (d) Metacognitive Strategies (9 items), (e) Affective Strategies (6 items), and (f) Social Strategies (6 items). The questionnaire was translated into Japanese as part of the Japanese language version (Oxford, 1990/1994) of Oxford's (1990) *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. Although Oxford does not directly discuss the process for establishing the reliability and validity of the SILL, a note to Chapter Six explains that an earlier, 121-item version of the SILL was found to have a reliability of .96 based on a 1,200-person sample and .95 with a 483-person sample. She then goes on to state that the reliability of 9 of 10 factors was found to be moderate to high with figures of .60 to .86, although for the 10th factor it was only .31. This is not the typical way of reporting the results of factor analysis, and if the 121-item version was claiming to measure six strategy types, then a 10-factor solution is hardly confirmation. The note goes on to state that the fifty-item version 7.0 of the SILL under discussion here was still being assessed for reliability and validity. Thus, while it would seem that the various versions of the SILL have a proven level of reliability, this does not suggest that the questionnaire is valid. As Bachman (1990) has stated, "The primary concern in test development and use is demonstrating not only that test scores are reliable, but that the interpretations and uses we make of test scores are valid" (p. 237). If at this point in the SILL's construction it were found to be unreliable, there would be no need to proceed, as an unreliable measure is similarly not valid.

Oxford (1996) discusses the psychometric qualities of the SILL, and in terms of reliability, she cites Watanabe (1990), where a Japanese version of the SILL achieved a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .92, and other studies with similar reliabilities in the .90 range. Following the above-mentioned Messick (1989) and Chapelle (1994) approach to test validity, Oxford examined a number of studies where the SILL correlated significantly with various measures of language learning. In Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, and Sumrall (1993), a multiple-regression analysis found low but significant predictive relationships between strategies

and final test grades (.20). Takeuchi (1993), also using multiple-regression analysis with language achievement as measured by the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT), found that four SILL items (17, 21, 22, and 32) positively predicted language achievement while four items (6, 30, 43, and 49) negatively predicted language success. Finally, Watanabe (1990) found low correlations between SILL items and students' self-ratings of their own proficiency. Although these results provide some measure of validation, only a few SILL items are involved, and the correlations are extremely low.

In Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar (1996) an independently translated version of the SILL was used in a multiple, individual learner differences study. The overall reliability of that translated version was .94 with the reliability for the six strategy types being .74 for Memory Strategies, .84 for Cognitive Strategies, .69 for Compensation Strategies, .88 for Metacognitive Strategies, .63 for Affective Strategies, and .73 for Social Strategies. The factor analysis in the Brown et al. (1996) study was only used to determine if the SILL was measuring something distinct from the other measures of such variables as personality, anxiety, and motivation. The six strategy types were found to load on a single factor, which confirmed that the SILL was measuring a variable distinct from the other instruments. The researchers know of no other published study that has attempted to establish either reliability or validity in this manner using a Japanese version of the SILL.

However, at TESOL 2000 in Vancouver, Canada, Hsiao and Oxford (2000) presented the results of a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis for an 80-item SILL. The factor analysis placed only 17 items into the six hypothesized groupings, leaving 63 items with no relation to the six strategy categories hypothesized. The 17 items were Memory Strategies (4, 5, 8), Cognitive Strategies (26, 27, 28), Compensation Strategies (41, 43), Metacognitive Strategies (49, 53, 55), Affective Strategies (66, 68, 69), and Social Strategies (72, 73, 74). Of these, only items 5, 27, 28, 68, and 72 are the same as or similar to items on the 50-question version of the SILL under study here.

To summarize, the SILL appears to enjoy a high degree of reliability in its various versions and the languages in which it has been employed. However, the reliability has been for the SILL as a whole, with the exception of Brown et al. (1996), where several of the scales were rather low. This still leaves the question of validity, which based on the sources discussed seems far from established, and has led us to ask the following research questions.

Research Questions

1. How reliable is the Japanese language version of the SILL for Japanese university students?
2. To what degree is the Japanese language version of the SILL valid for Japanese university students?

Method

The present study is based on two administrations of the officially translated SILL (Oxford 1990/1994) to the same group of 153 Japanese university students. The group was comprised of 110 first- and second-year females and 43 first- and second-year males studying at a private women's university and a private coeducational university in Tokyo. Their English proficiency level was approximately low intermediate. The first administration was conducted at the beginning of the spring semester. A second administration was conducted during the beginning of the fall semester using a version in which the order of the items had been randomized. There were no changes in the makeup of the group of subjects for the two administrations of the questionnaire. In addition, post-administration interviews were conducted with ten randomly selected students, four males and six females to get feedback on what the students thought about the questionnaire. The interviews were conducted individually in Japanese by the Japanese native-speaker author of this study with each of the interviewees. They were questioned about their thoughts on each of the 50 items and their responses were taken down in the form of notes.

Analysis

The data collected from the two administrations of the SILL were first analyzed for item statistics followed by descriptive statistics for the six parts as well as the entire SILL. The alpha level for all statistical decisions was set at .05. Both administrations were then examined for internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha for each of the six parts as well as overall reliability for both administrations. Next, each Time One item was compared to its identical Time Two item using the Pearson correlation. The resulting correlations were then squared to determine the degree of shared variance. The squared value of the correlation coefficient can be interpreted as the proportion of similarity between the two items (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). This procedure was repeated for the six parts of the SILL and for the entire SILL as well. Finally, the two administrations were examined using principal component analy-

sis (PCA), which is a type of exploratory factor analysis, with varimax rotation and eigenvalues set at one. These are the typical procedures for carrying out factor analysis. As is common, loadings of .30 and above were considered strong enough for inclusion in a given factor (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). In the initial use of PCA, the analysis was allowed to select as many factors as could be found with an eigenvalue over 1.00; however, a second PCA was run on both administrations in which the analysis was forced to choose six factors based on Oxford's theorized grouping. Scree plots for all PCAs were also calculated. These additional procedures were conducted to provide the SILL with as many opportunities as possible to supply support for its theoretical basis. Finally, the notes taken during the interviews were examined to determine the types of difficulties the students had understanding the questionnaire items and how their difficulties compared to one another.

Results

Table 1 shows the items themselves with their groupings, the mean on each item and the standard deviation, with Table 2 showing the means and standard deviations for the items on the second administration. Table 3 provides the descriptive statistics for the six subsections of the SILL and the entire SILL for both administrations. The distributions are all either positively or negatively skewed and those with skewness statistics at 1.0 or greater are problematic (Brown, 1997). These skewed distributions can reduce the test reliability and are violations of the assumptions of normality for the correlation statistics and factor analysis, which could adversely affect these results.

Table 1: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for the Items and Their Strategy Types, Time One (n = 153)

Item	Statement	Type	*M*	*SD*
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	Memo	2.79	0.94
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	Memo	2.56	0.95
3	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember.	Memo	3.02	1.09
4	I remember a new English word and an image or picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	Memo	2.63	1.12
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.	Memo	2.41	1.11

Table 1 (Continued)

Item	Statement	Type	*M*	*SD*
6	I use flash cards to remember new English words.	Memo	2.19	1.42
7	I physically act out new English words.	Memo	1.80	0.88
8	I review English lessons often.	Memo	2.66	0.66
9	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	Memo	2.56	1.24
10	I say or write new English words several times.	Cog	3.98	0.99
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.	Cog	3.09	1.23
12	I practice the sounds of English.	Cog	3.40	1.05
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	Cog	2.89	0.96
14	I start conversations in English.	Cog	2.17	0.86
15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	Cog	3.25	1.09
16	I read for pleasure in English.	Cog	2.77	0.97
17	I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English.	Cog	2.19	1.06
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	Cog	3.39	1.09
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	Cog	2.39	1.16
20	I try to find patterns in English.	Cog	2.81	1.07
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	Cog	2.70	1.18
22	I try not to translate word-for-word.	Cog	2.96	0.99
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	Cog	1.97	0.92
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	Comp	3.44	0.92
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	Comp	3.65	1.16
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	Comp	2.23	1.11
27	I read English without looking up every new word.	Comp	3.07	1.05
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	Comp	2.35	0.99
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	Comp	3.81	0.94
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	Meta	2.60	1.01
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	Meta	3.37	1.01
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	Meta	3.60	0.98
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	Meta	2.73	1.07
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	Meta	2.31	0.89
35	I look for people I can talk to in English.	Meta	2.19	1.03
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	Meta	2.50	0.97
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	Meta	2.94	1.29

Table 1 (Continued)

Item	Statement	Type	*M*	*SD*
38	I think about my progress in learning English.	Meta	3.09	1.04
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	Aff	2.80	1.07
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	Aff	3.07	1.16
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	Aff	3.43	1.09
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	Aff	3.08	1.16
43	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	Aff	1.48	0.86
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	Aff	1.99	0.99
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	Soc	4.14	0.88
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	Soc	2.65	1.19
47	I practice English with other students.	Soc	2.24	1.01
48	I ask for help from English speakers.	Soc	2.69	1.24
49	I ask questions in English.	Soc	2.44	1.09
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	Soc	3.03	1.21

Note: The statement for each item is in the English original from which the Japanese translation was made.
Key for Strategy Type: Memo = Memory, Cog = Cognitive, Comp = Compensation, Meta = Metacognitive, Aff = Affective, Soc = Social

Table 2: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for the Items, Time Two (n = 153)

Item	*M*	*SD*	Item	*M*	*SD*	Item	*M*	*SD*	Item	*M*	*SD*
1	2.99	1.14	16	3.95	0.89	31	3.39	1.06	46	2.08	1.04
2	3.25	1.13	17	2.51	1.24	32	3.15	1.04	47	2.97	1.22
3	3.52	0.90	18	3.24	1.17	33	2.88	1.07	48	3.47	1.04
4	2.36	0.82	19	2.22	1.06	34	2.97	1.04	49	2.48	0.98
5	3.73	1.10	20	3.12	0.99	35	2.52	1.03	50	2.85	1.04
6	2.18	1.15	21	2.74	1.01	36	2.92	1.03			
7	2.22	1.00	22	1.52	0.89	37	2.72	1.01			
8	3.25	1.15	23	2.51	0.98	38	2.93	1.03			
9	3.15	1.15	24	3.05	0.86	39	2.87	0.97			
10	2.79	1.19	25	3.31	1.02	40	2.78	0.96			
11	2.56	1.06	26	2.47	1.06	41	2.54	1.06			
12	3.47	1.07	27	2.97	1.11	42	3.44	0.93			
13	2.35	0.98	28	3.76	1.01	43	2.89	1.14			
14	2.53	1.05	29	3.29	1.01	44	2.93	1.05			
15	2.52	0.91	30	2.75	1.05	45	3.69	1.05			

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for the SILL and Subsections, Times One and Two (n = 153)

Measure	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max	Range	Skew
SILL, Time One	139.00	24.60	66	207	141	-.24
Memo, Time One	22.64	4.66	11	36	25	-.04
Cog, Time One	39.95	7.65	18	61	43	-.20
Comp, Time One	18.33	3.60	8	28	20	-.04
Meta, Time One	25.03	6.34	9	40	31	-.16
Aff, Time One	15.84	3.64	7	27	20	.07
Soc, Time One	17.18	4.89	6	30	24	.11
SILL, Time Two	144.58	25.22	63	229	166	-.26
Memo, Time Two	26.67	4.94	11	41	30	-.29
Cog, Time Two	37.84	7.91	16	66	50	.13
Comp, Time Two	18.85	3.41	8	27	19	-.42
Meta, Time Two	26.21	5.71	9	44	35	-.16
Aff, Time Two	17.45	3.73	6	27	21	-.38
Soc, Time Two	17.54	3.65	6	26	20	-.25

Key for Strategy Type: Memo = Memory, Cog = Cognitive, Comp = Compensation, Meta = Metacognitive, Aff = Affective, Soc = Social

Table 4 gives the reliability for the six parts and the overall reliability for both administrations. While the SILL as a whole for both times one and two has very high reliability at .93, several of the subsections are very low. In particular, the Time One reliabilities for Memo, Comp, and Aff are unacceptably low. The same is true for Memo, Comp, Aff, and Soc in Time Two. The results for the second measure of reliability, test-retest, are shown in Tables 5 and 6. The degree of shared variance for the items does not exceed 46 percent with some as low as 3, 4, 5,

Table 4: Internal Consistency for the SILL and Subsections, Times One and Two (n = 153)

Measure	Alpha	Measure	Alpha
SILL, Time One	.93	SILL, Time Two	.93
Memo, Time One	.63	Memo, Time Two	.66
Cog, Time One	.80	Cog, Time Two	.83
Comp, Time One	.67	Comp, Time Two	.58
Meta, Time One	.85	Meta, Time Two	.79
Aff, Time One	.59	Aff, Time Two	.67
Soc, Time One	.83	Soc, Time Two	.59

Key for Strategy Type: Memo = Memory, Cog = Cognitive, Comp = Compensation, Meta = Metacognitive, Aff = Affective, Soc = Social

Table 5: Percentage of Shared Variance Between SILL Items, Times One & Two (n = 153)

Items	R Squared	Items	R Squared
1	.03	26	.28
2	.16	27	.10
3	.16	28	.10
4	.21	29	.14
5	.18	30	.24
6	.07	31	.18
7	.18	32	.18
8	.07	33	.24
9	.13	34	.18
10	.18	35	.41
11	.34	36	.25
12	.26	37	.42
13	.12	38	.16
14	.29	39	.24
15	.29	40	.22
16	.29	41	.34
17	.27	42	.08
18	.14	43	.21
19	.14	44	.05
20	.14	45	.14
21	.27	46	.46
22	.07	47	.24
23	.11	48	.28
24	.07	49	.07
25	.36	50	.04

Table 6: Percentage of Shared Variance Between the SILL & Subsections, Times One & Two (n = 153)

Measure	R Squared
Memo	.25
Cog	.36
Comp	.14
Meta	.35
Aff	.17
Soc	.26
SILL	.58

Key for Strategy Type: Memo = Memory, Cog = Cognitive, Comp = Compensation, Meta = Metacognitive, Aff = Affective, Soc = Social

and 7 percent. The average for all the items is just 19.5 percent. For the subsections, the shared variance is similarly low, with the only exception being for the SILL as a whole at 58 percent.

Tables 7 and 8 show the results of the first PCAs with a 15-factor solution for Time One and a 13-factor solution for Time Two. We would expect the factor analysis to group items 1 through 9 in one factor, items 10 through 23 in a second factor, items 24 through 29 in a third factor, items 30 through 38 in a fourth factor, items 39 through 44 in a fifth factor, and items 45 through 50 in a sixth. However, the results for the Time One PCA show very few items loading together. The greatest group of items loading together is in factor 14 with items 46 through 49 together; however, beyond this, there are no greater groups of loadings than just two or three items together. Factor one takes up 23 percent of the total variance with the other factors accounting for considerably less, which is confirmed by the eigenvalues. In addition, the communalities, which show the degree to which the factors are accounting for each item, are not particularly high except for items 24, 25, 35 and 36. A similar state of affairs is found for the Time Two PCA; however, there are no groups of loadings greater than two, making the results appear even less systematic than with those of the Time One

Table 7: Principal Component Analysis, Time One (n = 153)

	Factor Loadings					
Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Communalities
35	0.85					0.91
36	0.85					0.91
23	0.64					0.47
30	0.60					0.58
50	0.44					0.61
32		0.72				0.57
29		0.66				0.51
41		0.59				0.53
31		0.56				0.62
40		0.53				0.58
39			0.45			0.50
20			0.70			0.57
9			0.63			0.35
19			0.58			0.44
21			0.39			0.45
8				0.79		0.49
34				0.49		0.54
16				0.45		0.57

Table 7 (Continued)

	Factor Loadings					
Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Communalities
44					0.79	0.38
1					0.32	0.38
Eigenvalues						
	11.54	3.19	2.40	2.02	1.98	
Percent of Total Variance						
	23.08	6.37	4.81	4.04	3.95	

	Factor Loadings					
Item	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10	Communalities
24	0.91					0.91
25	0.91					0.91
27	0.43					0.59
26		0.79				0.39
33			0.63			0.53
38			0.56			0.55
37			0.52			0.51
12			0.38			0.53
10				0.78		0.38
45				0.41		0.49
6					0.79	0.43
42					0.53	0.35
Eigenvalues						
	1.69	1.60	1.45	1.33	1.22	
Percent of Total Variance						
	3.39	3.20	2.91	2.66	2.45	

	Factor Loadings					
Item	Factor 11	Factor 12	Factor 13	Factor 14	Factor 15	Communalities
18	0.68					0.47
22	0.65					0.50
13	0.37					0.45
3		0.74				0.46
4		0.58				0.51
7		0.46				0.41
5		0.46				0.44
17			0.73			0.49
14			0.59			0.65
15			0.58			0.42
11			0.48			0.59
48				0.70		0.57
46				0.64		0.65
47				0.52		0.63
43				0.52		0.46
49				0.51		0.61

Table 7 (Continued)

28				0.74	0.42
2				0.47	0.36
Eigen values 1.19	1.18	1.12	1.08	1.04	
Percent of Total Variance 2.38	2.36	2.24	2.16	2.09	

Note: Only items with loadings equal to or over 0.30 are indicated in the table

Table 8: Principal Component Analysis, Time Two (n = 153)

	Factor Loadings					
Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Communalities
17	0.72					0.66
35	0.71					0.76
26	0.65					0.59
41	0.61					0.56
30	0.58					0.52
19	0.53					0.55
22	0.46					0.48
12	0.43					0.41
8	0.39					0.51
21	0.38					0.54
9		0.69				0.58
38		0.64				0.48
44		0.62				0.49
40		0.56				0.54
37		0.55				0.56
10		0.54				0.51
32		0.49				0.55
11		0.48				0.55
42			0.66			0.61
28			0.65			0.53
16			0.63			0.62
45			0.63			0.47
29			0.54			0.51
5			0.38			0.42
15				0.67		0.42
47				0.59		0.53
31				0.51		0.55
1				0.51		0.53
3				0.46		0.49
4				0.38		0.37
13					0.85	0.91
14					0.85	0.91
Eigenvalues						
	11.94	3.02	2.70	2.09	1.89	
Percent of Total Variance						
	23.88	6.04	5.41	4.18	3.79	

Table 8 (Continued)

Item	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10	Communalities
			Factor Loadings			
2	0.76					0.42
36	0.45					0.53
46		0.85				0.48
18			0.73			0.51
20			0.52			0.66
24			0.49			0.47
25			0.42			0.46
43				0.77		0.46
50				0.49		0.41
49				0.39		0.51
6					0.62	0.38
7					0.43	0.42
Eigenvalues						
	1.58	1.46	1.39	1.36	1.20	
Percent of Total Variance						
	3.16	2.91	2.79	2.73	2.40	

Item	Factor 11	Factor 12	Factor 13	Communalities
		Factor Loadings		
48	0.72			0.37
39	0.43			0.64
34	0.37			0.49
23		0.75		0.53
33		0.40		0.70
27			0.72	0.31
Eigenvalues				
	1.16	1.10	1.05	
Percent of Explained Variance				
	2.31	2.20	2.09	

Note: Only items with loadings equal to or over 0.30 are indicated in the table.

analysis. Again, almost all the total variance is being accounted for by factor one. Also, with the exceptions of items 13 and 14, the communalities are not particularly high.

Tables 9 and 10 show the attempt to force the SILL into a six-factor solution. Here we have a clearer picture of why the first factor is taking up so much of the total variance, although with Time Two, there is less of a concentration of items in the first factor. Nonetheless, the loadings for both PCAs show a combination of related and unrelated items from the six subgroups loading together. Figures 1 and 2 give visual representations of the eigenvalues through scree plots, which,

Table 9: Principal Component Analysis with Six Forced Factors, Time One (n = 153)

Item	Factor Loadings				Communalities
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	
35	0.79				0.91
36	0.79				0.91
14	0.69				0.65
47	0.68				0.64
49	0.68				0.61
30	0.67				0.59
46	0.67				0.65
48	0.60				0.57
23	0.55				0.47
17	0.51				0.49
50	0.49				0.62
40	0.47				0.58
28	0.44				0.42
16	0.43				0.57
4	0.42				0.51
15	0.39				0.42
13	0.35				0.45
26	0.31				0.39
20		0.72			0.57
21		0.66			0.45
19		0.59			0.44
22		0.49			0.50
18		0.44			0.47
39		0.43			0.50
9		0.43			0.35
7		0.40			0.42
3		0.39			0.46
5		0.35			0.44
32			0.69		0.57
11			0.62		0.59
45			0.57		0.49
12			0.56		0.53
29			0.55		0.51
38			0.51		0.55
33			0.51		0.53
31			0.49		0.62
37			0.44		0.51
10			0.39		0.38
8				0.69	0.49
34				0.49	0.53
2				0.48	0.36
6				0.44	0.43
Eigenvalues	11.54	3.19	2.40	2.02	
Percent of Total Variance	23.09	6.37	4.81	4.04	

Table 9 (Continued)

Item	Factor Loadings Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
43	0.53		0.46
44	0.53		0.38
1	0.43		0.38
41	0.37		0.53
24		0.86	0.91
25		0.86	0.91
27		0.44	0.50
Eigenvalues	1.98	1.69	
Percent of Total Variance	3.96	3.39	

Note: Only items with loadings equal to or over 0.30 are indicated in the table.

Table 10: Principal Component Analysis with Six Forced Factors, Time Two (n = 153)

Item	Factor Loadings Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Communalities
38	0.63				0.48
44	0.58				0.49
32	0.57				0.55
39	0.57				0.64
37	0.57				0.56
31	0.56				0.55
24	0.53				0.47
40	0.52				0.54
4	0.47				0.37
25	0.47				0.46
15	0.40				0.42
35		0.68			0.76
22		0.66			0.48
26		0.65			0.59
17		0.59			0.66
13		0.57			0.91
14		0.57			0.91
6		0.54			0.38
7		0.51			0.42
41		0.51			0.56
30		0.51			0.52
33		0.44			0.70
23		0.39			0.53
21		0.39			0.54
10		0.38			0.51
16			0.72		0.62
42			0.65		0.61

Table 10 (Continued)

20			0.65		0.66
28			0.64		0.53
29			0.61		0.51
45			0.49		0.47
18			0.47		0.51
5			0.47		0.42
3			0.37		0.49
34			0.37		0.49
47				0.59	0.53
49				0.57	0.51
36				0.57	0.53
1				0.52	0.53
48				0.49	0.37
50				0.48	0.41
8				0.44	0.51
12				0.32	0.41
Eigenvalues	11.94	3.02	2.70	2.09	
Percent of Total Variance	23.88	6.04	5.41	4.18	

Item	Factor Loadings Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
9	0.62		0.58
11	0.58		0.55
19	0.56		0.55
43	0.39		0.46
2		0.69	0.42
27		-0.52	0.31
46		-0.42	0.48
Eigenvalues	1.89	1.58	
Percent of Total Variance	3.79	3.16	

Note: Only items with loadings equal to or over 0.30 are indicated in the table.

if we count the number of factors to the left of the point where the line turns strongly to the right, seem to indicate that a one factor analysis of the SILL would be most appropriate.

The interviews revealed some very interesting problems the questionnaire posed for the respondents. The majority of students interviewed had difficulty understanding items 1, 5, 6, 7, 14, 19, 20, 22, 26, 43, 44, and 47. The most commonly cited reason for their lack of understanding was unfamiliar Japanese or English expressions. This was particularly true for items 5, 6, 22, and 43. Another reason respondents gave for their difficulty in understanding was that they could not imagine the situation.

Figure 1: Scree Plot, Principal Component Analysis, Time One (n = 153)

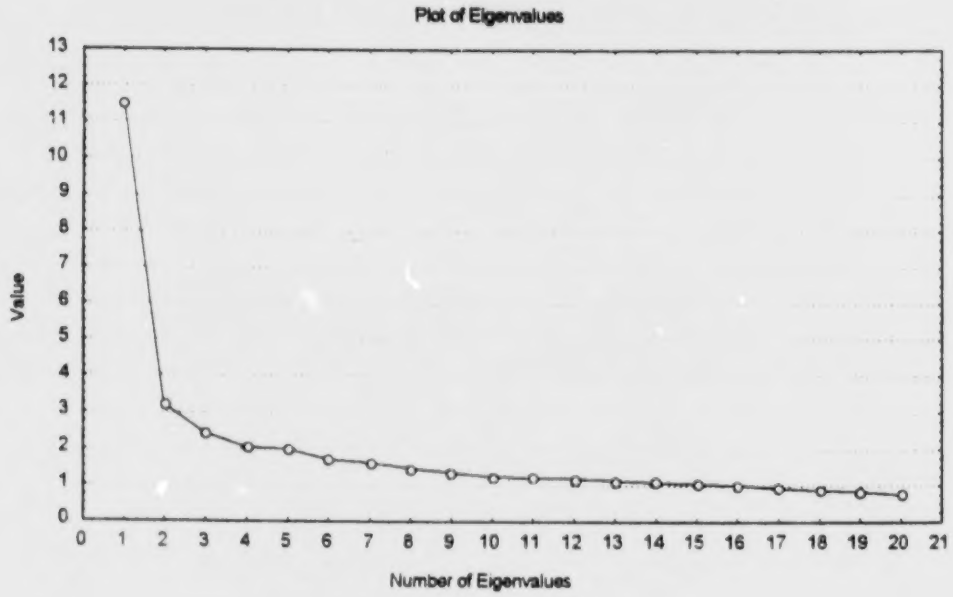
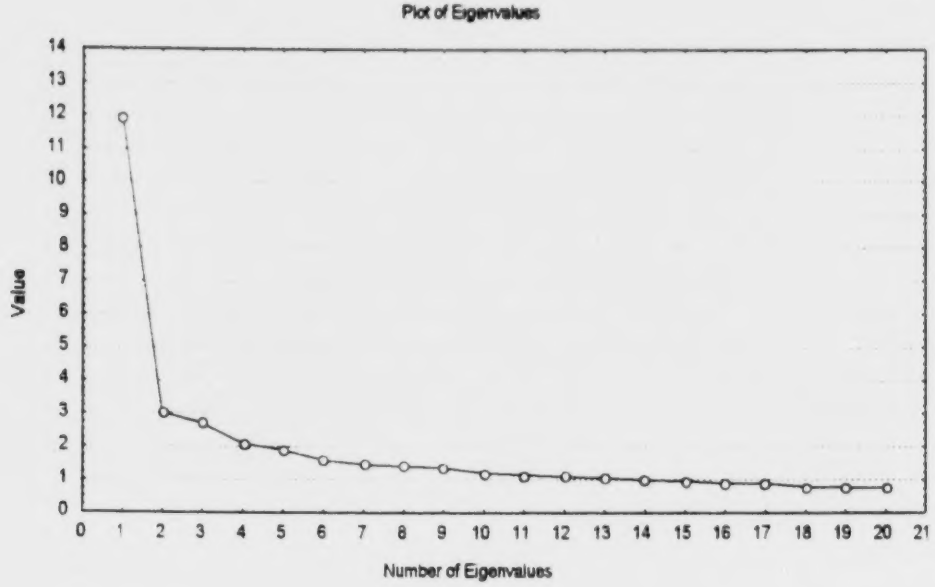


Figure 2: Scree Plot, Principal Component Analysis, Time Two (n = 153)



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Discussion

The results reported above provide a high level of reliability for the SILL as a whole, which is problematic, as the SILL should be measuring six different types of strategies, not one grand strategy type. Moreover, the alphas for the subsections show a similarly low level of reliability as was found by Brown et al. (1996). One reason for this could be the number of items in the subsections, where the longer subsections such as Cognitive Strategies have higher reliability. Length is an important factor in reliability, as longer measures tend to be more reliable (Bachman, 1990). Moreover, as was noted previously, all the distributions are skewed, which must also be affecting the level of reliability. For example, Social Strategies Time One has fairly high reliability, but at Time Two it drops to .59. However, there is also an increase in the skew between times one (.11) and two (-.25). Nevertheless, these skewed distributions cannot fully explain the relatively low reliability as the Cognitive Strategies subsection has a consistent level of reliability from Time One to Time Two, but skewed distributions of -.20 and .13. The test-retest reliability as indicated by the percentage of shared variance for the items, subsections and entire measure show that the SILL is highly unreliable. It is important to remember that reliability can be measured several different ways, and that dependence on a single approach can be risky. One reason for the low figures has been found in other studies looking at either beliefs or strategies (for example Gaies & Sakui, 1999), where the students were found to change over time. Although it is difficult to determine the exact reasons for change without conducting extensive post-administration interviews, students may interpret the questions on a given measure in light of their current learning situation and not learning situations in general. Moreover, the effects of training and learning must also be taken into account. In addition, it is important to remember that strategies are not personality traits, which have been shown to remain stable over time and across situations (see Angleitner, 1991). Thus, it is hardly surprising that the percentage of shared variance should be so low between the two administrations. However, there are other possible explanations for the low levels of reliability. Again, the skewed distributions could be adversely affecting the results, or it is possible that the population surveyed was too homogeneous. The subjects are all from a single language background and culture with close similarities in age and possibly educational experience. The skewed distributions are likely part of the explanation. Nonetheless, the Japanese version of the SILL was designed to examine just this type of population. More-

over, the educational background of this group of subjects is probably not all that homogeneous. The students at the women's university come from a wide area north and west of Tokyo and attended both private and public high schools where there are educational differences from one school to the next. The co-ed school subjects are similar in this regard. It also seems reasonable to expect that most administrators or teachers will use the SILL under similar conditions in Japan.

The factor analysis results do not confirm Oxford's six strategy categories even when attempting to force the analysis into a six-factor solution. In fact, the SILL is either measuring 15 or 13 different types of strategies, or even just one as indicated by the eigenvalues and scree plots. There are a number of potential reasons for this. The low reliability is an important factor as is the size of the population. Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) recommend at least 35 subjects per variable for PCA, which in this study would necessitate an n size of about 1,750 subjects. With a sample size of only 153, there is considerable loss of statistical power. Nonetheless, other studies with larger samples have shown similar results (Hsiao & Oxford, 2000) and based on those found here as well as in Brown et al. (1996), it would seem safer to limit the SILL to one grand language learning strategies factor instead of trying to break it into theorized groups.

Attempting to label each of these strategy types is very difficult. There seems to be almost no system to the factor loadings, although, some of the factors can be tentatively labeled. For example, Time One factor 14 seems to be related to Oxford's Social Strategies, while factor 2 contains items from the Analyzing and Reasoning subgroup within Cognitive Strategies. Factor 12 seems to be the Memory Strategy subgroup Applying Images and Sounds. The factor solution for the second time shows an even greater mixing of items from different strategy groups almost necessitating a complete abandonment of Oxford's categories. However, by looking at the wording, we can apply tentative labels. For example, factor two can be interpreted as various speaking strategies. In addition, there seem to be groupings of items in both Time One and Time Two based on the type of action expressed by the verb in Japanese. An example would be Time One factor four, where the subjects seem to place emphasis on such actions as "review," "read," and "plan." The attempt to force the SILL into six factors for Time One resulted in what looks like a one-factor solution including some items from each subsection. If these results had been repeated in Time Two, there would have been an opportunity to support a one-factor solution based on this data. Unfortunately, the items in the first factor differ.

The problems students had understanding the questionnaire were

partially revealed by the post-administration interviews conducted with a very small sample. These students were unfamiliar with such expressions or situations as *kokoro ni egaku* (making a mental picture) in item 4, *in o tsukau* (use rhymes) in item 5, "flash cards" in item 6, and *karada de hyogen shite* (physically act out) in item 7. For example, during the administration of the questionnaire, the majority of students could not read the character *in*, which means rhyme in Japanese, and did not know its meaning when it was read to them. Moreover, other items that were incomprehensible were ones that reflect a more Western approach to learning strategies than one with which Japanese students are familiar, such as with items 4 and 7. In addition, students had difficulty relating many of the situations presented in the questionnaire to their own learning. First, the questionnaire presumes an ESL learning situation, where the situation in Japan is clearly EFL. Thus, these students have few opportunities for target language use outside of the classroom. Of the 10 interviewees, 3 had experienced studying in an English-speaking country and had few comprehension problems with the learning situations presented. However, for the remaining 7 students, target language study and use was limited to the classroom, library, home, train, or their English Speaking Society (ESS) meetings and they found many of the learning situations in the questionnaire unimaginable or strange. Moreover, as was noted above, the interviewees responded to items based on their current learning situation and not learning situations in general.

Conclusion

The simplest conclusion one can draw from this initial attempt at determining the reliability and validity of the Japanese language version of the SILL is that it is neither reliable nor valid based on this student sample. Although the SILL has shown a high degree of internal reliability for the entire questionnaire, it claims to measure six different strategies and thus must be analyzed as six different measures. In fact, the high degree of reliability for the entire SILL, as noted above, is not necessarily a good thing. The subsections have a generally low and unacceptable alpha level. Moreover, there are serious questions about how reliable the results are when given to the same group more than once and how valid the categories used to group the items on the questionnaire are. In other words, while the SILL may indeed be measuring language-learning strategies, it does not seem to be measuring groups of strategies in the manner Oxford has claimed, at least for these learners. It would seem reasonable, based on the high reliability for the en-

tire SILL, the eigenvalues, and scree plots, to describe the SILL as a general measure of language-learning strategies and not a measure of six different strategy types. The researchers believe that these conclusions can be drawn based on these data in spite of potential problems with *n* size, the possibly homogeneous population, skewed distribution, and low reliability.

As discussed previously, the methods Oxford used to validate an earlier version of the SILL are somewhat suspect. Taken together with the lack of established reliability or validity for the later versions (despite claims by Yamato, 2000, p. 142, to the contrary), those using the English version of the SILL will not be able to rely on the results. Moreover, Hsiao and Oxford's (2000) confirmatory factor analysis does not provide much confidence either. Cautionary use becomes even more necessary with the Japanese translation, as it is now a new questionnaire that has not gone through a rigorous reliability and validation process. These issues and problems are not just about strategies, but relate to any use of a self-report questionnaire. It should be clear from this analysis that simply taking a questionnaire, translating it into another language, administering it to a group of students and then using the results for making educational policy decisions are very unwise practices. Moreover, any questionnaire must reflect the actual learning situations of the target population, their strategy use, the type of language with which they are familiar, and any cultural differences that might affect the outcome. The researchers hope that through this initial attempt at validating Oxford's questionnaire other researchers and language-teaching professionals will take a more cautious approach to questionnaire use and interpretation.

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Quiet Apprehension: Reading and Classroom Anxieties

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Although many studies of foreign language anxiety focus on the difficulties caused by anxiety with respect to classroom activities such as speaking and listening, this study investigates the possible relationship between general foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) and foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) in the Japanese classroom. Using previously published measurement scales (the FLCAS and the FLRAS), this study seeks first to determine the reliability and validity of the individual scales across three different groups in nine intact first-semester English classes (252 students) at a Japanese university. Based on this data, the possible relationships between the two theoretical constructs of foreign language classroom anxiety and foreign language reading anxiety, and the variable of class group are explored. The results of the study suggest that although subcomponents of the two scales are related, overall FLCAS and FLRAS are measuring two clearly independent constructs. In addition, anxiety types measured also differed significantly depending on group membership.

これまで外国語学習における不安（anxiety）はスピーキングやリスニングなどのクラス活動の分野に重点を置いて研究されてきたが、この研究では、外国語のクラスにおける一般的な不安(FLCA)と外国語のリーディングに対する不安(FLRA)に相関関係があるかを探った。既存の測定尺度(FLCASとFLRAS)を用い、日本の大学生（１年生から３年生までの２５２人）を対象に、まず各尺度の信用性と有効性を調べた。そのデータを基に、外国語のクラスに対する不安(FLCA)と外国語のリーディングに対する不安(FLRA)という二つの理論上の構成体には相関関係があるか、そして不安の型には学年による違いが見られるかを分析した。その結果、FLCASとFLRASは細部では関連が見られるものの、全体としては明確に独立した構成体であること、不安の型には学年によって顕著な違いが見られることがわかった。

Researchers in different fields have long recognized the existence of anxiety and its potential for interference with performance (e.g., Alpert & Haber, 1960; Eysenck, 1979; Spielberger, 1983).

Their general perspectives on anxiety set the groundwork for the development of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's (1986) definition of foreign language anxiety as a complex set of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related specifically to classroom language learning and the language learning process. They claim three types of anxiety as their theoretical basis: *communication apprehension, test anxiety,* and *fear of negative evaluation.* In an effort to psychometrically assess these three types of anxiety underlying foreign language anxiety, Horwitz et al. developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) as a standard instrument (Horwitz et al., 1986). Horwitz also studied student beliefs about language learning (Horwitz, 1988) and stressed that affective consequences of these beliefs must be considered. The results of this study, for example, suggest that a significant number of students put stress on grammatical accuracy, which Horwitz identifies as a contributing factor to anxiety in foreign language learning.

Tobias (1986) created a separate taxonomy of anxiety and suggested a framework containing three distinct subconstructs of anxiety in language learning: input, processing, and output. Tobias claimed that anxious learners have greater difficulty registering information (input), cognitive operations (processing), and production (output) than do less anxious learners. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, 1991b) also investigated various types of anxiety scales and tried specifically to assess foreign language anxiety. They concluded that foreign language anxiety is a situation-specific form of anxiety unrelated to other forms of anxiety. They also examined the relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language proficiency. Although their findings yielded two distinct constructs in foreign language anxiety in support of Horwitz et al. (1986), they concluded that test anxiety is a more general problem that is not necessarily specific to the language classroom. They also supported Tobias' (1986) theory by obtaining a negative correlation between anxiety and the learning (input) and production (output) of French vocabulary.

Anxiety and Language Learning

A review of the literature shows the negative relationship between anxiety and foreign language learning. Significant negative correlations between test anxiety, final course grades, and high competitiveness in class, which leads to anxiety and thus impairs learners' progress and/or performance, are often reported (e.g., Aida, 1994; Bailey, 1983; Chastain, 1975; Phillips, 1992). One possible explanation for these re-

sults may be the negative effect anxiety has on memory and recall (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b). Another possible explanation may be the effect embarrassment and anxiety has on classroom performance (Saito & Samimy, 1996; Ely, 1986; Samimy & Tabuse, 1992). In addition to negative changes in performance, research suggests that foreign language anxiety affects learners' classroom behaviors in general (cf. Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1991).

In contrast, a number of studies have suggested that the effects of foreign language anxiety are not always negative. Bailey (1983) found that facilitative anxiety was one of the keys to success, pointing out that although too much anxiety had a negative effect, moderate amounts of anxiety produced positive results. In other words, a certain amount of anxiety, combined with sufficient motivation and enough time, may be beneficial to performance in the target language (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b; Tobias, 1986).

Research has also suggested that levels of FL anxiety vary according to instructional levels, although there is little agreement on where the most or least anxiety lies. Gardner, Smythe, Clement, and Gliksman (1976) found that French-class anxiety correlated more strongly with proficiency as the students entered higher grade levels. On the other hand, Gardner, Smythe, and Brunet (1977) found the highest anxiety existed in the beginners' classes while the least anxiety was observed in the advanced and intermediate classes. Saito and Samimy (1996) obtained a somewhat different result, exploring the impact of anxiety on learners of Japanese at beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels. Their results suggest that advanced learners display the highest anxiety levels, while intermediate students scored the lowest and beginning students fell between the two. The conflicting findings of these three studies suggest that influences on anxiety are quite dynamic, with factors such as experience with the target language playing a key role.

It has also been hypothesized that the initial level of anxiety could change depending upon learners' experiences and proficiency. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) claim that positive experiences with the target language and observable achievement in the classroom help to reduce anxiety. A number of studies have dealt with the effect of immersion or intensive courses and their effect on anxiety (Chapelle & Roberts, 1986; Desrochers & Gardner, 1981; Gardner et al., 1977; Gardner, Smythe, & Clement, 1979). The results of these studies indicate that anxiety levels are notably lower following positive intensive language learning experiences, regardless of L2 proficiency, target lan-

guage, or age.

Research points to oral classroom activities as some of the most problematic and anxiety-provoking activities for foreign language learners (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a; Price, 1991; Mejias, Applebaum, Applebaum, & Trotter, 1991; Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986). Students experience significantly higher anxiety when responding orally than when doing other learning tasks, and this anxiety is observable in oral production. Students in the anxiety-producing situation of oral language production tend to respond less interpretively and attempt more concrete messages than those in relaxed conditions.

Several researchers have attempted to measure apprehension specific to FL reading and writing. Cheng, Horwitz, and Schallert (1999) investigated the relationship between L2 classroom anxiety and L2 writing anxiety of university English majors in Taiwan using translated versions of the Daly-Miller (1975a, 1975b) Writing Apprehension Test (SLWAT) and the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). They found that while L2 classroom anxiety involves a more general type of anxiety that focuses on speaking apprehension, L2 writing anxiety is the more specific type dealing with the language-particular skill of writing. In their detailed factor analysis, they reported a five-component solution: two components (Low Self-confidence in Speaking English and General English Classroom Performance Anxiety) from the FLCAS and three components (Low Self-confidence in Writing English, Aversion to Writing in English, and English Writing Evaluation Apprehension) from the SLWAT.

Reading anxiety has also been studied in FL settings. Saito, Garza, and Horwitz (1999) used the FLCAS and the FLRAS (Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale, specifically developed to assess reading apprehension) to investigate links between general FL anxiety and FL reading anxiety. They wanted to see whether learners' FL anxiety influences their FL reading anxiety. They found that FL reading anxiety is related to but distinguishable from general FL anxiety and that reading anxiety increased as learners' perceptions of the difficulty of the reading increased. Various levels of reading anxiety were found depending on the different target languages studied. In contrast, MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement (1997), in their study of biases in self-ratings of second language proficiency in different skills, found similar levels of bias in speaking, writing, and comprehension, but not in reading. They claim that this is because reading is, for the most part, a "private task" in which repetitions and clarifications are silently performed, thus limiting risks of embarrassment.

Statement of Purpose

Thus far, a large body of research has dealt with communication-related anxiety in the foreign language classroom, but it seems that only a limited number of studies have been conducted to specifically measure reading anxiety. Is reading such a private task that students are unlikely to feel anxious about it as MacIntyre et al. (1997) suggest? We began to question their view when several students in our third-year reading class told us that they often feel nervous and have trouble concentrating when they have to read in English. They claimed that they often end up reading the same sentences repeatedly without comprehension. As Saito et al. (1999) put it, "at first glance, reading would seem to be the component of FL performance least susceptible to anxiety effects" (p. 202). However, it became apparent that some students may be experiencing quiet apprehension in their L2 reading classes.

The purpose of this study is to explore foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) and foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) in the Japanese EFL classroom. Previous studies and measurement scales were the logical starting point for this undertaking. Although questionnaires such as the FLCAS and FLRAS had been carefully developed and their reliability reported, the original forms of these questionnaires were developed with a specific population in mind. Consequently, establishing the reliability and validity of the forms used in this study was a primary concern. We then attempted to determine what, if any, relationship exists between these two concepts of anxiety and whether this relationship differs depending on group membership, operationalized as class level.

The following research questions were explored in this study:

1. Is there a relationship between general English classroom anxiety and English reading anxiety?
2. Are there differences in types of anxiety based on the school year?

Method

Participants

A total of 252 students majoring in English at a large university in Kyoto participated in the research. Three classes each from the first-year, second-year, and third-year courses were chosen at random to represent their year. The subjects consisted of 89 first-year, 85 second-year, and 78 third-year students. Their proficiency in English ranged from high beginner to high intermediate, with all classes containing mixed

proficiencies. The majority of the high beginners were in the first-year classes. Student ages ranged from 18 to 21. As in Cheng et al. (1999), the classes of English majors were dominated by female students, with a male-female ratio of 75:177 (see Table 1).

Naturally, school curricula vary according to the school year. First-year students, following a recently introduced curriculum, met three times a week for what is called "four skills" classes and also three times for "content-based" classes in which they study in five different content areas in English (Environmental Issues, British Culture, Australian Culture, Music, and Japanese Culture) for five weeks each. Second- and third-year students are in separate curricula. Second-year students received six distinct classes per week, including intensive reading, extensive reading, grammar, writing, speaking, and listening. Third-year students met five times a week for intensive reading, extensive reading, business writing, a "content-based" class, and a seminar.

Table 1: Participant Data

Year	Participants	Male	Female	Hours of English/week
First	89	23	66	9.0
Second	85	29	56	9.0
Third	78	23	55	7.5

Materials

Two instruments were used in this study: the FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) and the FLRAS (Saito et al., 1999). The instruments were designed to elicit students' self-reports regarding anxiety, either over various aspects of reading in a foreign language (FLRAS) or over general classroom anxiety in a foreign language class (FLCAS). All items on both instruments were answered on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The FLCAS contained 33 items, and the FLRAS contained 20 items. In order to ensure that questionnaire items were clearly understood, the Japanese researcher in this study translated both questionnaires into Japanese, and the translation was placed underneath each original English equivalent. The translation was then back translated and checked by a bilingual Japanese colleague and a bilingual native speaker of English to make sure that the original meaning had not been altered. The only necessary changes to the wording of the original instruments were cases where the words

"foreign language" and "language," found in the original FLCAS and FLRAS, were replaced with "English," and "the teacher" was changed to "the English teacher."

Procedures

The FLCAS was administered in the 8th week and FLRAS in the 10th week of the Spring semester of 2000. Students were reminded that they were not to answer the items based on the specific class where the questionnaires were administered, but rather based on general English classes or English reading classes. Two Japanese teachers and a native speaker teacher administered the questionnaires to the first-year students in their "four skills" classes. The questionnaires for the second-year students were administered by Japanese teachers in one reading and two listening classes. The third-year students received the questionnaires from two Japanese and one native speaker teacher in their reading classes.

Students who filled out the FLCAS but were absent in the 10th week were asked to fill out the FLRAS in the 11th week. Likewise, students who missed the FLCAS in the 8th week were told to fill it out in the 11th week. Students who did not complete a questionnaire or could not be located to fill out both questionnaires were eliminated from the study, thus slightly reducing the number of participants. Data collection was for the most part successful for each target group, with 95.7% of the first-year, 93.4% of the second-year, and 92.2 % of the third year students' data being collected.

Analysis

The reliability of the two instruments was determined using Cronbach's alpha. Construct validity, the ability of the questionnaire to measure what it purports to measure, and the interrelationship among the items included in the questionnaire was determined by a principal component analysis. The principal component analysis was carried out on a Macintosh computer using the STATISTICA (1994) software package. A varimax rotation was used and eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and meeting the scree plot criteria were retained. Significant differences between variables and their interactions were explored using MANOVA and Pearson *r*, following principal component analysis. An alpha level of .05 was set for all statistical procedures.

Results

Reliability of the FLCAS and the FLRAS

Although reliability of both instruments has been previously reported (Cheng et al, 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986; Saito et al., 1999), the reliability in these previous cases is not relevant to our translated versions nor to the population of this study. Therefore, internal consistency was computed for each of the Japanese versions of the FLCAS and the FLRAS. Cronbach's alpha for the FLCAS was 0.78 (N = 252, M = 100.75, and SD = 11.43) and for the FLRAS it was 0.71 (N = 252, M = 61.26, and SD = 7.33). These values were lower than expected, and much lower than the values reported in Cheng et al. (1999) and Saito et al. (1999). Kurtosis and skewness help determine whether a distribution is normal, and here kurtosis was .037 for FLCAS and .339 for the FLRAS and skewness was .140 and .089 for the two tests, respectively, indicating normal distribution.[1] See Table 2 for descriptive statistics by test and year.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for FLCAS and FLRAS

	Total	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
FLCAS				
Total	25394.000	8894.000	8477.000	8023.000
Mdn	101.000	99.933	102.000	102.000
mode	98.000	11.986	101.000	96.000
M	100.770	100.000	99.729	102.859
SD	11.428	98.000	10.910	11.192
min	72.000	73.000	72.000	73.000
max	133.000	128.000	125.000	133.000
kurtosis	0.037	-0.109	0.122	0.087
skewness	0.140	0.221	0.057	0.082
N	252	89	85	78
FLRAS				
Total	15437.000	5278.000	5327.000	4832.000
Mdn	62.000	59.000	63.000	61.000
mode	61.000	54.000	62.000	64.000
M	61.258	59.303	62.671	61.949
SD	7.326	7.096	7.493	7.004
min	41.000	43.000	41.000	43.000
max	89.000	79.000	78.000	89.000
kurtosis	0.339	-0.260	0.285	2.067
skewness	0.089	0.228	-0.530	0.722
N	252	89	85	78

Structure of the Questionnaires

To explore the component structure of each of the questionnaires (i.e., to see which items grouped together based on subject response), an exploratory principal component analysis with varimax rotation was performed. Following this, correlation coefficients (a numerical measure of the degree of agreement between two sets of scores) were computed to determine the associations among factors in each of the questionnaires. Principal component analysis is sensitive to the size of the correlation, requiring a rather large sample size. Although there is no total agreement among statisticians regarding what constitutes a large enough sample size, Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) suggest 300 cases as a minimum. Consequently, the sample size for this study (252) does not meet this criterion. On the other hand, the assumption of a ratio of 20:1 for subjects to factors and 2:1 for subjects to variables (STATISTICA, 1994) was met by the present data.

Principal Component Analysis of the FLCAS

A principal component analysis with varimax rotation produced seven factors with eigenvalues greater than one. Retaining all seven factors would create a model too complex for our purposes, so a smaller number of factors was extracted. The number of factors to extract in the study was based on two methods: the first being that previous research determined a two-factor solution and the second being a standard statistical analysis using a scree plot. If the eigenvalues are plotted on a graph, the place where the smooth decrease of eigenvalues appears to level off is the cutoff point. All eigenvalues to the left of the cutoff point will be retained as factors in the matrix. The scree plot was chosen over the more familiar Kaiser criterion based on evidence that the Kaiser criterion sometimes retains too many factors (Kline, 1994; STATISTICA, 1994) and based on the interpretability of a two-factor versus a seven-factor solution. Looking at a scree plot of the eigenvalues for this study showed that the plot turned right following Factor 2 (see Figure 1). The last five factors were thus discarded. If the current model based on two factors is correct, then the two factors will explain a substantial amount of variance in all items. The percent of variance explained for each factor and the total percent explained can be found in Table 3.

Figure 1: Scree Plot of Eigenvalues for FLCAS

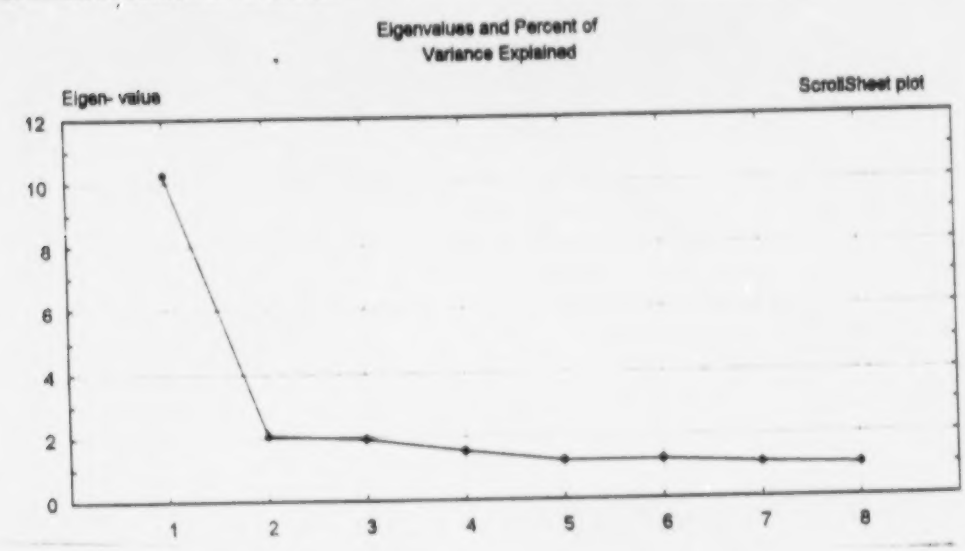

Table 3: Results of Factor Analysis for FLCAS

Item#	Questionnaire items	F1	F2	h^2
2.	I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	.547		.345
3.	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.	-.657		.488
4.	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	-.546		.365
8.	I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.	.384		.165
9.	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	-.519		.411
12.	In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	-.676		.464
13.	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	-.458		.276
14.	I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.	.583		.452
16.	Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.	-.652		.480
19.	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	-.423		.253
20.	I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in my English class.	-.732		.563
22.	I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.	.407		.166
24.	I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	-.369		.155
26.	I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.	-.747		.602
27.	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	-.779		.657
29.	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	-.684		.492
30.	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English.	-.453		.256

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Table 3 (Continued)

Item#	Questionnaire items	F1	F2	h^2
25.	English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	-.447	.424	.380
33.	I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	-.623		.454
31.	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	-.626		.408
21.	The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.	-.308	.322	.199
1.	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English.		.604	.562
5.	It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes.		-.618	.384
6.	During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.		.477	.256
7.	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.		.573	.420
10.	I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.		.511	.358
17.	I often feel like not going to my English class.		.697	.489
18.	I feel confident when I speak in my English class.		-.577	.444
23.	I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.		.560	.388
28.	When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.		-.570	.488
32.	I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English.		-.435	.339
	Eigenvalues	10.26	2.04	
	Percentage of variance	31.09	6.18	
	Cumulative percentage of total variance	31.09	37.28	

The communalities shown to the right in Table 3 are the proportions of variance of each item due to the common factors. If the present model is correct, then the values will be generally homogeneous. This two-component solution is similar to Cheng et al. (1999); however, unlike their study, which excluded items with factor loadings less than .50 and/or double loadings within .20 of the primary loading, this study included all items in the analysis with loadings greater than .30, regardless of double loadings. These factor loadings represent the correlation of a variable with a factor, and loadings of .30 or more are considered to be significant (Kline, 1994). Consequently, only items 11 and 15 were deleted based on low factor loadings and communalities.

The first factor, which accounted for 31.1% of the variance included items related to anxiety, fear, and pressure related to performance in the English classroom. In particular, the two items with the highest loadings on Factor 1, items 26 ("I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes") and 27 ("I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class") reflect students' anxi-

ety about classroom performance. Therefore, this component was labeled General English Classroom Performance Anxiety (FLCA1).

The second factor, which accounted for 6.2% of the total variance, included items not specifically related to performance in the classroom. Many of the items that loaded on Factor 2 were concerned with self-confidence in English ability, such as item 1 ("I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English"). In addition to these, the items that loaded the highest on Factor 2 were items pertaining to attending English classes such as items 5 and 17. Since these could be related to general self-confidence, factor 2 was labeled Low Self-Confidence in Speaking English (FLCA2).

Principal Component Analysis of the FLRAS

Using the same procedure described above, a principal component analysis of FLRAS suggested a three-component solution, which accounted for 40.89% of the total variance (Table 4). Items 15 and 16 were deleted based on their low factor loadings and low communalities, and item 2, which double loaded on factor 1 and factor 2, was also deleted for the purpose of clarity.

Items in factor 1, which accounted for approximately 21% of the total variance, were mainly concerned with grammar and vocabulary. The items that loaded the highest on this factor were item 6 ("I get upset whenever I encounter unknown grammar when reading English") and item 8 ("It bothers me to encounter words I can't pronounce while reading English"). Therefore, this factor was labeled Familiarity with English Vocabulary and Grammar (FLRA1).

Factor 2, accounting for 11.79% of the total variance, was concerned mainly with confidence in reading English and reading enjoyment. Item 12 ("I enjoy reading in English") and item 13 ("I feel confident when I am reading in English") were representative of factor 2 and so this factor was labeled Reading Confidence/Enjoyment (FLRA2).

Factor 3 accounted for 8.1% of the total variance and included a variety of items, making it difficult to label this factor. The highest loading for factor 3 was item 19 ("English culture and ideas seem very foreign to me") but other items with almost equally high loadings were item 9 ("I usually end up translating word by word when I am reading English in front of me") and item 11 ("I am worried about all the new symbols you have to learn in order to read English"). Since these items dealt either with English culture or ideas, as well as the English writing system, this factor was labeled Language Distance (FLRA3) (See Table 4).

Table 4: Results of Factor Analysis for FLRAS

Item#	Questionnaire items	F1	F2	F3	h^2
1.	I get upset when I'm not sure whether I understand what I'm reading in English.	-.586			.376
5.	I am nervous when I am reading a passage in English when I am not familiar with the topic.	-.375			.235
6.	I get upset whenever I encounter unknown grammar when reading English.	-.739			.636
7.	When reading English, I get nervous and confused when I don't understand every word.	-.555		-.551	.610
8.	It bothers me to encounter words I can't pronounce while reading English.	-.655			.435
20.	You have to know so much about English history and culture in order to read English.	-.420			.308
3.	When I'm reading English, I get so confused I can't remember what I'm reading.		-.475		.381
12.	I enjoy reading in English.		.740		.633
13.	I feel confident when I am reading in English.		.845		.717
14.	Once you get used to it, reading English is not so difficult..		.627		.541
18.	I am satisfied with the level of reading ability in English that I have achieved so far.		.629		.468
4.	I feel intimidated whenever I see a whole page of English.			-.484	.424
9.	I usually end up translating word by word when I'm reading English in front of me.			-.630	.455
10.	By the time you get past the funny letters and symbols in English, it's hard to remember what you're reading about.			-.510	.367
11.	I am worried about all the new symbols you have to learn in order to read English.			-.626	.470
17.	I don't mind reading to myself, but I feel very uncomfortable when I have to read English aloud.			-.472	.256
19.	English culture and ideas seem very foreign to me.			-.631	.492
	Eigenvalues	4.20	2.36	1.62	
	Percentage of variance	20.99	11.79	8.10	
	Cumulative percentage of total variance	20.99	32.78	40.88	

Correlations among the Questionnaires and Their Subcomponents

Based on the results of the above two principal components analyses, Pearson correlations were computed for the FLCAS and FLRAS and their subcomponents using factor scores derived from the principal component analyses. Table 5 presents the correlation matrix. FLCA1 (General English Classroom Performance Anxiety) correlates significantly with FLRA1 (Familiarity with English Vocabulary and Grammar) and

FLRA3 (Language Distance). This suggests the obvious connection between familiarity with the FL and performance anxiety. FLCA2 (Low Self-confidence in Speaking English) correlated significantly with two of the factors in FLRAS: Reading Confidence/Enjoyment (FLRA2) and Language Distance (FLRA3), suggesting that self-confidence in speaking and reading are related and that familiarity with the mechanics of English is also related to self-confidence.

Table 5: Pearson Correlation Matrix

	FLRA1	FLRA2	FLRA3	FLCA1	FLCA2
FLRA1	1.000				
FLRA2	.002	1.000			
FLRA3	.000	.000	1.000		
FLCA1	.413*	-.066	.259*	1.000	
FLCA2	-.023	.390*	-.298*	.000	1.000

Note. * $p < .05$

MANOVA

Using the factor scores from both factor analyses, a Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was performed to see if there was any significant effect for the independent variable of school year. The dependent variables in the statistical procedure were the three factors for the FLRAS and the two factors for the FLCAS. A significant effect for the independent variable of year was found ($p < .008$; $df = 10,488$) and the Wilks' Lamda was .908. Univariate analysis indicated that the significant factor in this analysis was FLRA1 (Familiarity with English Vocabulary and Grammar), as shown in Table 7.

Table 6: MANOVA Results

Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
FLRA1	3.9133	2	0.9824	3.9832	.0198
FLRA2	1.6522	2	1.0008	1.6508	.1940
FLRA3	2.8026	2	0.9935	2.8209	.0615
FLCA1	2.5408	2	0.9916	2.5623	.0792
FLCA2	0.4959	2	1.0081	0.4919	.6121

Table 7: MANOVA Univariate Analysis Results

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	Rao's R	*df*	*df 2*	*p*
1	0.908	2.415	10	488	0.008

Discussion

Unlike Saito et al. (1999), who found a significant relationship between the overall FLCAS and FLRAS, we found almost no statistically significant correlation between the two scales. While Saito et al. claim that students with high general FL anxiety tend to have high FL reading anxiety, our findings indicate that FL reading anxiety is very specific and independent of more general types of FL anxiety. Items from both measures loaded on different components except for "low self-confidence," which was found to be a significant component of both anxiety scales. We found two subcomponents in the FLCAS that we labeled General Classroom Performance Anxiety (FLCA1) and Low Self-Confidence in Speaking English (FLCA2) and three subcomponents in the FLRAS that we labeled Familiarity with English Vocabulary and Grammar (FLRA1), Reading Confidence/Enjoyment (FLRA2), and Language Distance (FLRA3). When the items in the two measures were examined further based on the factors above, however, there were significant relationships between the FLCA1 and FLRA3, the FLCA2 and the FLRA2, and the FLCA2 and the FLRA3. Although the FLCAS and the FLRAS are independent of each other, they share some latent anxiety elements.

Previous research supports the idea that anxiety in foreign language learning is a multi-faceted construct. Those constructs seem to vary depending on target language and different learning settings. Aida (1994) administered the FLCAS to a class of students of Japanese and obtained four factors (Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation, Fear of Failing the Class, Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Speakers of Japanese, and Negative Attitude toward Japanese Class) , none of which was similar to any of the factors we found in the FLCAS. On the other hand, Cheng et al. (1999) examined the FLCAS and the SLWAT and found low self-confidence as a significant component in both measures. Moreover, their two subcomponents of the FLCAS were similar to the subcomponents we obtained in the FLCAS, although Cheng et al. found the low confidence dimension as the primary component.

As for the FLRAS, we cannot compare our findings to other studies because, thus far, only a few researchers have recognized the possible existence of FL reading anxiety. After administering the FLRAS, Saito et al. (1999) also claimed that FL reading is an anxiety-provoking activity. Their study, however, was conducted in French, Russian, and Japanese language classrooms. Anticipating that two aspects, a) unfamiliar scripts and writing systems and b) unfamiliar cultural material, would have an impact on learners' anxiety, they simply compared means of the data from each language group. Their participants, however, were in first-semester university classes, that is, relatively new learners of a foreign language. When dealing with English majors in Japan, aspect a) above may not be applicable. Most students have studied English since junior high school and are familiar with the English alphabet and symbols. Therefore, some items in the FLRAS may not have been suitable. For example, "funny letters and symbols" in item 10 and "new symbols" in item 11 may not have been understood precisely.

As our data analysis suggested, the first subcomponent of FLRAS (FLRA1, Familiarity with English Vocabulary and Grammar) was the most significant factor in marking difference by school year. It seems that first-year students tend to be more concerned about unfamiliar topics, unknown sounds, words, and grammar (displayed in items 5, 6, 7, and 8). They are likely to focus on details rather than the big picture of the reading. As Saito et al. (1999) found, "the fact that students feel they should understand everything and experience anxiety whenever they encounter unfamiliar words and grammar" (p. 214) was most prevalent in the first-year students.

We should, however, point out the limitations of this study. The major limitation of this study is the low reliability of both questionnaires, and it is this low reliability that may have had an effect on the findings of the principal component analysis. There are a number of possibilities why the reliability for these two scales was low. Possible sources of variance include variance due to questionnaire administration, variance attributable to the participants, and variance attributable to the questionnaire items.

The results need to be interpreted with caution because although students were told to answer about English classes in general, they may have responded based on the specific class they were attending at that time. In addition, whether the administrator was Japanese or non-Japanese may have influenced subject responses to certain items. It must also be noted that responses might have been different had the questionnaires been administered at the beginning or end of the semester, or together (as was done with Saito et al., 1999).

Variance attributable to the participants and different curricula could have somehow affected their anxiety reactions as well. Third-year students do not actually have conversation class, but may be required to speak in a more challenging situation in reading/writing classes. First-year students learn to read in an integrated "four-skills" course, so they were not really exposed to extensive reading yet. We also did not take students' individual experiences or proficiency into consideration.

Another source of variance to consider is the sensitivity of responses to item wording. Although the two scales contain sets of items that are intended to measure the same type of anxiety, our participants responded differently to the items such as FLCAS item 3 ("I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class") (M = 2.72, SD = 1.10) and item 20 ("I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in my English class") (M = 3.10, SD = 1.10). Item 4 ("It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English") (M = 3.06, SD = 1.21) was also marked differently from its counterpart, item 29 ("I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says") (M = 3.32, SD = 1.04). We observed a more noticeable difference in the FLRAS, displayed in item 1 ("I get upset when I'm not sure whether I understand what I'm reading in English") (M = 2.25 SD = 0.95) and item 7 ("When reading English, I get nervous and confused when I don't understand every word") (M = 3.18, SD = 1.10). Thus, one plausible explanation for our low reliability is a lack of exact agreement among the intended items.

With respect to the two scales used, the FLRAS is not as thoroughly tried and tested as the FLCAS. The especially low reliability displayed by the FLRAS in our study raises the question of the applicability of this scale, in its present form, to English majors in Japan. Also, the wording in the Japanese translation, although carefully constructed, may have somehow affected the reliability.

Conclusion

Although reading is considered a private task and thought to be unsusceptible to anxiety (MacIntyre et al., 1997), our findings show the existence of apprehension towards FL reading, which is distinguishable from general FL anxiety. When the items were examined further by factor analysis, our five-factor solution indicated a complex feature of FL anxiety. We found some relationships between the subcomponents of the two scales; however, the FLCAS and the FLRAS, being far from identical, can be seen as measuring different constructs. The three components we found in the FLRAS are related to anxiety specific to

FL reading, and they describe important types of anxiety that may arise in FL reading classrooms.

Regarding our second research question, our data provide tentative support for the view that reading anxiety due to limited familiarity with English grammar and vocabulary is greater among first-year students than second- or third-year students. One possible explanation for this may be the attention paid to grammar and vocabulary when preparing for entrance exams. It could be that this attention to grammar and vocabulary lessens as students progress through their four years of study. If this is the case, then teachers may wish to specifically address this reading anxiety in the first year, possibly by focusing more on fluency activities than on accuracy activities, for example.

Whether or not our interpretation of our findings is correct, we hope that our study has shown the importance of establishing the validity and reliability of a questionnaire for each new population and translation. Based on our results it is clear that the surveys and the items therein should be redesigned. In addition, more qualitative research, such as interviews and classroom observation, would help to shed some light on the validity of the models created by this study. By using multiple methods of data collection and data analysis, it may be possible to come to a clearer understanding of FL reading anxiety and its relationship to general FL anxiety.

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Note

Although values close to zero are desired for both kurtosis and skewness, the standard error of measurement for kurtosis in this study was .154, and the standard error of measurement for skewness was .308. Based on these values, the obtained skewness values were compared with zero using a *z* distribution (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, p. 72). No significant kurtosis or skewness was found at a = .01.

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Perspectives

A Rationale for L1-to-L2 Literary Translation in College EFL Instruction

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Translation is a much-neglected area of EFL instruction, long shunned by many within the field of ELT. However, there are various kinds of translation and some can be very effective pedagogical instruments. A course in Japanese-to-English literary translation in EFL college programs in Japan has demonstrated its effectiveness in developing students' written expression in English. A rationale for this approach lies within the relationships across languages and across the modalities of L1 reading and L2 writing. This needs to be unified with an understanding of practice, in particular, teacher-student conferencing and peer collaboration. It is hoped that a synergism[1] will emerge from further study and research on this topic along with more teachers assuming positive views toward this kind of translation instruction and attempting to undertake it in their classrooms.

翻訳はEFLの授業で非常に軽視され、ELTの分野の多くの教師によって長らく避けられてきた領域である。しかし、翻訳には様々な種類があり、使い方によっては大変効果的な教育手段になりうるものである。日本語から英語への文学作品の翻訳演習を行う日本の大学でのある講座は、翻訳演習が学習者の英語での文章表現力を養うのに有効であることを既に示している。このような教授法の理論的根拠は、異なった言語の間の相互関連性および、第1言語の読解力と第2言語の文章表現力の間の相互関連性に存するものであり、実践方法の理解、とりわけ教師と学習者の間での相談や学習者同士の共同作業のやり方についての理解が統合される必要がある。このテーマについてのさらなる研究の進展と、この種の翻訳演習の授業に肯定的な見解を持つより多くの教師による教室での実践が相乗効果をあげることが望まれる。

Discussion of appropriate and effective uses of students' first language (L1) in English as a foreign language (EFL) instruction, including observations of the benefits of L1 use in the L2

(second language) writing process, has been going on for some time in the literature of English language teaching (ELT). Yet it seems when language teachers hear the word translation in this context, most recoil and think that it is an outdated and ineffective way of teaching. Howatt (1991) has noted that the practice of translation has been denounced so strongly for so long that many teachers still proscribe its use in language learning as a matter of principle. Discussion about how translation might be effectively employed as a teaching methodology in language classes barely registers a blip as one scans the professional field of ELT publications and conference presentations.

Translation is generally associated with the grammar-translation method, an application of the traditional approach used to teach the classical languages of Latin and Greek, in which instruction is provided almost entirely in the students' native language and the focus is on the explanation of grammar rules, the memorization of native language equivalents of target language vocabulary, and the translation of reading passages in the target language that are selected without particular regard to content or level of difficulty into the native language (see Howatt, 1991). This method is believed by advocates and practitioners of communicative approaches to hinder severely the successful acquisition of functional use of the target language (e.g., see Brown, 1994; Rivers, 1981).

It is important to recognize, however, that there are various types of translation and a number of ways in which it can be utilized as a very productive pedagogic device in language classes. Widdowson (1979) has affirmed that in some circumstances certain kinds of translation indeed may provide the most effective means of learning. From 1990 to 2000, I taught a course in Japanese-to-English literary translation, first in the intensive English program of a two-year college and later in the EFL program of a university. The Japanese students' proficiency levels were generally from lower to upper intermediate. Although lacking the empirical evidence of a controlled comparative study, my direct experience with the work of more than 150 students has provided compelling support for the assertion that the English translation texts that they produced often demonstrated a higher order of language structure and expression than writing products generated from standard assignments in composition and academic writing courses that were also part of the curriculum for these students.

At the same time, there is a broad range of language skills involved in the process of translation. Malmkjaer (1998) has noted that a good deal of reading, writing, speaking, and listening is required for the production of an acceptable translation. The four language skills are inte-

gral components of the process and language students who are translating receive considerable practice with them. The involvement of speaking and listening will become clear in the discussion of teacher-student conferencing and peer collaboration.

This article does not at all contend that such a translation course by itself is sufficient to fully develop students' L2 writing skills. Rather, it presents a basis for the argument that L1-to-L2 translation entails complex and multiple interrelationships between reading and writing, including an important relationship between L1 reading and L2 writing, which can effectively advance second language writing skills and proficiencies. The instructional methodology for the approach to Japanese-to-English literary translation that is discussed in this article has been presented in detail previously by Porcaro (1998), who gives titles and authors of many texts that were used successfully in the translation course. The summaries of the classroom methodology that follow are derived from that article.

Reading/Writing Connections

A number of studies have explored interlingual and intralingual reading and writing relationships, and researchers have considered the pedagogical implications of their findings. In a study of Chinese and Japanese students of English as a second language (ESL) at universities in the U.S., Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, and Kuehn (1990) used writing prompts for essay samples and cloze passages in both the first languages and English in order to analyze second language literacy in terms of both interlingual transfer and intralingual input. They found that literacy skills can transfer across languages, but the pattern and strength of this transfer vary according to first language and educational background and experience. The results also indicated that reading ability transfers more easily from L1 to L2 than does writing ability, suggesting that L1 reading skills can have some impact on L2 reading. However, the weak correlation between L1 and L2 writing for the Japanese students and the absence of a correlation for the Chinese learners suggested the possibility of very limited, if any, exploitation of L1 writing in ESL writing pedagogy. The authors concluded that L2 literacy development for adult ESL learners is a complex phenomenon involving multiple variables, and that particularly at higher levels of proficiency, intralingual input may be very important for L2 literacy skills development.

Underscoring the complexity of these relationships are the results of other studies of Japanese students that followed the work of Carson

et al. (1990). In their examination of Japanese university students' English expository writing, Hirose and Sasaki (1994) investigated several factors that might have influenced the quality of the writing product. They found that L1 writing ability was highly correlated with L2 writing ability and formulated the hypothesis that "Japanese EFL students' composing competence (measured by the quality of L1 writing) and L2 proficiency both influence the quality of their L2 writing" (p. 219). Kubota (1998) investigated rhetorical structures in Japanese L1 and English L2 essays. The findings of her study indicated that students who wrote well in Japanese could be encouraged to apply the L1 writing strategies that they used to ESL writing as well. On the other hand, those who wrote poorly in Japanese could be expected to need extensive training in how to organize ideas effectively for ESL writing.

Eisterhold (1990) highlights the enigmatic relationship between reading and writing using three models of the reading-writing connection. The *directional* hypothesis holds that "reading and writing share structural components such that the structure of whatever is acquired in one modality can then be applied in the other" (p. 89). But this transfer can proceed in only one direction, most commonly from reading to writing. The *nondirectional* hypothesis is an interactive model in which "reading and writing are said to derive from a single underlying proficiency, the common link being that of the cognitive process of constructing meaning" (p. 90), and transfer can occur in either direction. The *bidirectional* hypothesis claims that reading and writing are not only interactive, but interdependent as well. Gousseva (1998) succinctly applies the reading-writing connection to the language learning process, as follows:

> The development of literacy involves development of writing and reading as conjoined activities with shared cognitive processes that shape each other, and are affected by (and affect) the context in which they occur. (unpaginated)

In the context of second/foreign language learning, Cummins (as cited in Eisterhold, 1990) claims "there is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency that is common across languages that allows transfer of literacy-related skills across languages" (p. 95). Eisterhold adds:

> It appears that L1 literacy skills can transfer to the second language and are a factor in L2 literacy acquisition.... The general process of acquiring L2 writing and reading abilities appears...to be influenced by the transfer of L1 literacy skills that affect the

> quality of L2 reading and writing quite apart from what can be learned from the second language itself. (p. 99)

L1-to-L2 Translation

The almost entirely neglected area of second language learning involving L1-to-L2 translation exposes a reading-writing connection hitherto unexamined, namely, the relationship across languages *and* across modalities of L1 reading and L2 writing. Rivers and Temperley (1978) have insightfully described the translation process that leads us into this area, as follows:

> The production of an acceptable translation into English is [for students]...a means for developing sensitivity to the meanings expressed in a stretch of discourse in one's own language and to the different linguistic mechanisms used by the two languages to convey these meanings. Students learn to translate ideas, not words. This type of exercise is, therefore, an analytic activity. Through a comparative examination of the syntactic and semantic systems of English and the native language and the cultural contexts in which they operate, students attempt to expand their own potential for expression in the English language. (p. 337)

There are, however, just a few disparate studies that have investigated the element of translation from L1 in relation to second language writing. Friedlander (1990), for example, reviewed a number of studies, which indicated that L1 writing strategies could positively affect L2 composing. He sought to identify the circumstances in which adult ESL writers' L1 could be more helpful than the L2 in recalling knowledge about a particular subject. His study of Chinese-speaking ESL students at a U.S. university confirmed his hypothesis that ESL writers would be able to plan more effectively and write better English L2 texts when they could plan for their writing in the language of the topic knowledge and then translate into English. That is to say, students who planned in Chinese for the given topic that related to a Chinese experience generated English essays that were superior in quality to those written by students who planned for that topic in English. This kind of task is a long way from literary translation, but perhaps the results of the study suggest the role played by schemata from student-translators' L1 background in their engagement with a literary text in the construction of meaning and in the reconstruction into English of that

text that in its essence is inseparable from its social and cultural origins.

Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992) compared compositions of the same students that resulted from two different writing processes. One was written directly in L2 English and the other was composed in the first language and then translated by the writer into L2 English. The subjects of the study were Japanese EFL students at a university in Japan. Although there are very important differences between translating a text one has written oneself and translating a given L1 text, the findings from the research should be considered. It was found that the students produced significantly better L2 English compositions, in terms of quality of content, organization, and style, by writing via translation (from Japanese) than by writing directly in L2, although the students in the low proficiency group in their study benefited more from translation than the students in the high proficiency group. Syntactic complexity was also greater in the translations, but there were more errors that interfered with intended meaning in the translations of the higher-level students than in their direct writing. Some of the implications of these findings relate to those drawn by Friedlander from his study. Kobayashi and Rinnert noted that the use of the first language especially by lower-level students might enable them to explore ideas fully within their own intellectual and cognitive boundaries. Thus, they could benefit from L1 use in this way, especially in the prewriting and planning stages. At the same time, they cautioned that the extensive use of translation of one's own L1 text hinders writing fluency and the development of other L2 writing skills. On the other hand, genuine translation from a given L1 text into L2 English can be an effective language learning methodology at all proficiency levels.

Uzawa (1996) has confirmed the fact of the scarcity of empirical data on translation in the framework of language learning. Her work was a comparative study of L1 writing, L2 writing, and translation processes. The subjects were Japanese ESL students studying at a Canadian college. The research design included think-aloud protocols, observational notes, a questionnaire, and interviews, in addition to the writing samples. The translation task (from L1 Japanese into L2 English) was from a magazine article and expository in nature, as were the topics for L1 and L2 writing. It was found that scores on language use were significantly higher in the translation task than in the L1 and L2 writing tasks, and students paid much attention to words in order to express in English the meaning of the Japanese text. This would seem to uphold the assertion of a supportive relationship between L1 reading and L2 writing through the translation process. Uzawa re-

marked, however, "the participants were freed from the cognitive activities of generating and organizing ideas, and [thus] were able to concentrate on linguistic activities" (p. 288). This seems to ignore the considerable cognitive transaction with the given L1 text in the construction of meaning that is an integral element of the process of translation and the L1 reading/L2 writing connection. Nevertheless, she noted that those students in her study whose scores were relatively high in the L2 writing task responded that translation is more helpful for language use than L2 writing. She concluded that translation tasks may be useful for second language learning in that the process requires learners to use words, expressions, grammar, and syntax that are a little beyond their present level.

L1 Reading/L2 Writing Connection

We need, then, to pursue further these aspects of the integration of reading and writing in the process of L1-to-L2 translation. First, on the nature of the processes of reading and writing, Zamel (1992) has stated:

> It has become commonplace to characterize the act of writing as a meaning making, purposeful, evolving, recursive, dialogic, tentative, fluid, exploratory process. Recent research and theory in reading have shown us that these terms can be applied as well to the act of reading. (p. 463)

At the same time, meaning is culture-specific. Readers bring their own schemata to their transaction with a text in order to construct meaning. When reading, Goodman (1994) has noted:

> The reader [constructs] a text parallel and closely related to the published text. It stays the same yet is a different text for each reader. The reader's text involves inferences, references, and coreferences based on schemata that the reader brings to the transaction. And it is this reader's text that the reader comprehends and on which any later retelling is based. (p. 148)

Remarkably, this description relates almost literally to the process undertaken in translation as well. The task of translation involves students first in an understanding of the L1 text, and literary text in particular is inseparable from its social and cultural origins. Brannen (1997) has made the point as follows:

> All translation is the translation of culture, whether considered narrowly as the transfer of meaning expressed in one language into equivalent expressions in another language, or broadly on a socio-semiotic scale embracing a range of semiotic systems. (p. 169)

Students, therefore, consciously apply the schemata from their Japanese background and go on to reconstruct ("retell") the L1 text in writing in English. In the process of translating a literary text, students attempt to deepen their understanding of its social and cultural background, and to reexamine its essence so that they can aptly communicate it in English. They are involved in a transaction with the L1 text in order to construct an equivalent L2 English written text that "reproduce[s] the greatest possible degree of the meaning of the original [text]" (Newmark, 1988a, p. 66). This is a unique application of the interrelationship of the processes of reading and writing, in which the L1 literary text provides "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1987) for writing. The resultant English translation text contributes "comprehensible input" not only back to the L1 text but also to the students' reading of their own L2 products and the published professional translation(s) that are later read and compared with the texts that they themselves have constructed from the same L1 source text. Student-translators are involved in acts of reading and writing, as described above by Zamel, with continual re-reading of the literary text along with a writing process that includes drafting, consulting dictionaries, reflecting, conferring, collaborating, revising, and editing that is described in detail by Porcaro (1998) and discussed below.

L1 Literary Texts and Methodology

Very carefully selected extracts from works of L1 literature for translation offer Japanese college and university EFL students a unique opportunity to explore the dimensions of both languages and to develop written expression in English that is of a nature and quality both different from and beyond the products of standard composition in the second language. Duff (1989) has commented on the value of translation:

> Translation develops three qualities essential to all language learning: flexibility, accuracy, and clarity. It trains the learner to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity). This combination of freedom and constraint allows the students to contribute their own thoughts to a discussion that has a clear focus—the text. (p. 7)

The text requires that "students consider various aspects of meaning they have extracted and rethink it in terms of the target language so that as little is added and as little is lost as possible" (Rivers & Temperley, 1978, p. 329). They need to think "from the meaning to the words and not the other way round" (Duff, 1981, p. 22), and let thought shape language, not language structure thought (p. 20). As Newmark (1988a) has noted, accuracy in a communicative translation is basically lexical, and thus students must engage in a mental struggle to choose the words for their translations. The grammar can be treated more flexibly, so they must undertake transpositions and shifts of structures and changes of word order over a wide range and depth in order to produce as fluent and as economical a translation as they can. Yet meaning is shaped by sentence structure as well. These language choices are determined by the needs of the target language as "language structures reality" (Duff, 1981, p. 111).

Text Selection

The rationale for using L1 (Japanese) literature is that it more suitably elicits the kind of language encounter that has been described in this article as compared with essays or newspaper and magazine articles, for example. In my teaching experience literature is far more interesting to the students. It gives them a genuine sense of purpose and achievement to render well a work by a renowned author and to be able to compare their work with professional translations, and it enhances their appreciation and enjoyment of good literature in itself.

The teacher's wide reading of L1 literature, in the original or good translation, is important for choosing texts that are most suitable for students and the teacher him/herself, and for accumulating a repertoire of texts from which an imaginative and effective syllabus can be developed. There is a very wide range of Japanese literary texts at various levels of difficulty that can be used. Short stories of moderate length are very convenient to work with and excerpts from novels, as well as different forms of poetry, may be chosen and used successfully.

The determination of appropriate extracts from the literary works is absolutely critical. I generally use a few continuous pages from stories: a scene with the principal characters, a highlight or pivot of the story, or a scene representative of the story as a whole. A combination of narrative and dialog, with minimal description, generally works best, heeding the observation that "narrative, a sequence of events, is likely to be neater and closer to translate than description, which requires the mental perception of adjectives and images" (Newmark, 1988b, p.

50). The teacher needs to consider with much care the level of language structure and vocabulary that will be required to render the L1 text into the L2. Consultation with a native L1 speaker with background in the L1 literature, high proficiency in the L2, and ideally some experience in translation, can be very instructive.

Teaching Translation in EFL

As Newmark (1991) has pointed out, teaching translation within language teaching needs to be distinguished from teaching translation. The teacher for such a course, or one using literary translation as a component in a general writing course, need not have a high command of the L1, nor be a literary scholar or translator, but certainly should have studied the language in some depth and acquired a good understanding of its basic structure and grammar, a functional base of vocabulary, and some reading ability. Ready and reliable access to an L1 consultant is quite important. At the same time, the teacher should be familiar with some fundamental principles and practices of translation itself, such as the principles of equivalent effect and equivalent frequency of usage, and the treatment of the repetition of words, "empty words," collocations, metaphors, cultural words and allusions, and ambiguity. While endorsing the role of translation as a valuable resource in the foreign language classroom, Stibbard (1998) has cautioned:

> [S]uch translation must be grounded in a sound understanding of the principles that should underline all translation activity. If there is no such understanding of the many factors that influence the translation process, then translation will not be a useful pedagogical tool. (p. 69)

Research, consultation, careful planning and preparation, and detailed attention to students' work and individual needs make possible the literary translation instruction discussed in the present article.

Beginning the Translation Process

After the teacher has introduced the literary work and the author to the class, students are assigned the L1 (Japanese) text to read carefully several times so that they understand the story and the particular scene that they will translate, as well as to examine elements such as the structure, vocabulary, style, and tone of the piece. Further discussion of the content of the text and attention to particular translation prob-

lems are taken up as students move through the translation process itself. This is a holistic approach in which students' work begins directly on the texts. Duff (1989) notes: "Translation, unfortunately, is something you learn only by doing"(p. 13).

Although literary translation methodology must focus on students' products, it should simultaneously accept the following affirmation by Stibbard (1998):

> Translation as a teaching activity should be concerned with the process and skill of translation and only with the end product in so far as it arises from sound skills development. The general student benefits from merely working toward solutions, understanding the factors that determine decisions and from evaluating these decisions. The final product is for our purposes of less importance than the work that went into producing it. (p. 73)

Teacher-Student Conferencing

Students are assigned appropriate quantities of the L1 literary text to translate in draft form in approximately equal portions each week spent on the translation task. Having reviewed the drafts in students' notebooks in advance of the class meetings and made some editorial markings and comments, I have a brief conference in class with each student on his/her draft while the others are involved in peer collaboration. Usually a few points are treated with the class together. The teacher's response to students' drafts and the conferencing are crucial parts of the translation writing process as the drafts always need a lot of further work, which, of course, is normal even for professional translators.

In reviewing students' drafts, the teacher may use a good published professional translation (sometimes two or three are available) as a guide along with the original L1 text. To understand how a teacher with limited L1 language proficiency can capably deal with the drafts, it is very important to understand that by this point in the instructional process he/she has already very carefully studied the assigned text in the manner that has been described, seen the drafts of all the students and often had the experience of using the text with past classes. That is, he/she has worked with as many as dozens of translations of the L1 text, and continues to review various points relevant to the translation with native L1 speakers as well as the current students.

In her study of teachers' responses to student writing in ESL instruc-

tional settings, Zamel (1985) reported a number of implications that apply with as much or more relevance to teacher-student conferencing in L1-to-L2 translation instruction and its foundations. She advises that teachers respond to students' writing with "text-specific strategies, directions, guidelines, and recommendations" and that "the concern [be] with the communicative effectiveness of the text" (p. 95). Translation conferencing focuses on elements such as word choice, accuracy, grammar, usage, word order, fluency, and style, but the essence of translation, as we have seen, is precisely its "communicative effectiveness" and this is the principal dimension of students' work that is the focus of conferencing. As Zamel urges teachers to help students understand, student-translators especially are sensitive to recognize the need to address meaning-level issues in the text first.

Zamel (1985) also tells us that students "must be made to understand that texts evolve, that revision is to be taken literally as a process of re-seeing one's text, and that this re-seeing is an integral and recursive aspect of writing" (p. 96). Throughout their work on a literary text, student-translators are involved in a continual process back and forth between re-reading the L1 text and re-reading and re-writing their L2 translation texts. There is an inherent understanding of the necessity and value of this process. The instructor's facilitative assistance in conferencing with students reinforces the essential importance of continual clarification and exploration of both the L1 literary text and the L2 translation text in order that meaning is clearly and accurately derived.

Zamel (1985) concludes with another statement particularly relevant to the relationship between student-translators and the native-speaker English teacher in an EFL setting:

> To respond by participating in the making of meaning means that we no longer present ourselves as authorities but act instead as consultants, assistants, and facilitators. Thus, rather than making assumptions about the text, taking control of it, and offering judgmental commentary...we need to establish a collaborative relationship with our students, drawing attention to problems, offering alternatives, and suggesting possibilities. (pp. 96-97)

In the course of L1-to-L2 literary translation, this relationship quite naturally occurs in that students in fact are better placed than the teacher to make meaning from their transaction with the L1 text. Stu-

dents are able to impart to the teacher meanings and deeper understanding of that text, while the teacher helps students to improve their L2 translations by pointing out the merits and insufficiencies therein and guiding them toward solutions to problems. In this way there is a unique form of two-way teaching and learning, a special sharing between the teacher and students with mutual acknowledgement and appreciation of both languages and cultures in a rewarding, interactive foreign language learning experience.

Translation Processing

Ivanova (1998) has reviewed several studies on translation processing and noted that research into language learners' translation strategies has found that students tend to engage primarily in lower-level processing during comprehension, translation production, and monitoring. This includes focusing on lexical and syntactic problems while disregarding text-level aspects. Seguinot (as cited in Ivanova, 1998) has suggested that potentially good translation students "work back and forth from the translation to the text...monitoring for meaning, meaning loss, for structure, cohesion, register, and style" and, thus, teaching is most effective when its focus is on improving revision strategies (p. 98). These remarks reinforce the necessity of effective teacher-student conferencing as discussed above and the conjunction of peer collaboration as outlined below in the methodology of L1-to-L2 literary translation for EFL students. These operations are essential in order to obtain positive outcomes from the translation process itself and high quality L2 translation products in the end.

Generally most problems with language use in translations into the second language are due to interference, which, according to Newmark (1991), occurs when any feature of the source language is carried over inappropriately into the target language text and falsifies or makes ambiguous the meaning of the text or violates usage. Malmkjaer (1998) has noted that even bilinguals experience interference in one way or another, and translation practice develops both awareness and control of interference.

Peer Collaboration

At each class meeting, students collaborate among themselves by comparing and discussing particular points of their drafts – especially those that the teacher has noted as needing correction or change – and alternatives and possible solutions to problems. Some research studies, however, have found peer collaboration problematic in ESL/EFL set-

tings. For example, in a detailed study of peer response groups of students in an ESL freshman writing class at a U.S. university, Connor and Asenavage (1994) found that although students made many revisions in their essays, few were the result of direct peer group response. They stated that the small impact on revisions from peers' comments in the groups was disappointing and that they needed to reconsider some of the practices in their ESL writing program. On the other hand, in a study by Lockhart and Ng (1993), after undergoing carefully planned initial training sessions, Chinese students enrolled in an L2 writing class at a university in Hong Kong responded positively in a questionnaire to their participation in peer response groups. The researchers reported the following benefits of peer responses, which apply as well to the unique circumstances of the L1-to-L2 literary translation process:

> It is useful in helping writers to receive feedback on ideational aspects of their writing.... It enables students to become more aware of the impression their writing creates in their readers.... It seems to improve the writing abilities of the reader...[and it enables students] to clarify positions and to negotiate between the meaning conveyed by the writers and the meaning perceived by the readers. (p. 23)

Peer collaboration on L2 (English) translation drafts can be highly successful and provide the major input for the revision process that leads to successfully written final products. The teacher's review of each student's draft and the teacher-student conferences establish what aspects of the drafts need further work. Since students work from the same L1 text, each has a shared interest with all the other classmates in both giving and obtaining input to test solutions and resolve the translation problems each faces, though each student, of course, is responsible for producing in the end his/her own translation.

Peer collaboration supports and advances the reading-writing connections that have been discussed as the foundations for L1-to-L2 literary translation in EFL settings. Although Gousseva (1998) investigated an L1 university freshman composition class, her analysis of peer reviews also applies well and perhaps even more aptly to the translation setting. She has noted that the subprocesses of revision in writing and critical reading are highly related and derive from similar thought processes. Peer reviews, she believes, can be a powerful learning tool in this regard, providing students with valuable opportunities to develop critical reading skills. Indeed, in the process approach to L1-to-L2 trans-

lation tasks advocated here, peer collaboration involves students in critical reading of others' L2 English texts as well as re-reading their own and the original L1 literary text from which all the drafts are derived. This critical reading is further applied later when they read published professional translations of the same L1 literary text that are evaluated and compared with their own. Even there they discover that these professional L2 translation texts are not flawless in terms of accuracy and construction of meaning. Finally, as Gousseva has pointed out, peer collaboration also increases students' motivation for writing; assists them in gaining confidence in their writing and in their ability to learn from one another and themselves; provides opportunity to develop metalanguage useful for thinking and talking about writing; and encourages an awareness of writing as decision making as they reflect on alternatives, make choices, and consider the reasons behind their choices.

Concluding the Translation Process

After each week's work of drafting, reviewing, conferencing, and collaborating on successive portions of the assigned text, students revise and edit their drafts. When work on the entire assigned text is completed, students submit final copies of their translations. These are evaluated holistically with careful attention to accuracy, fluency, and style. Grammar, syntax, and vocabulary use are also closely examined. I correct, change, and reconstruct elements of the text only where necessary, tampering as little as possible in order to maintain the integrity and individuality of each translation. Papers are returned to students with written comments and copies of published professional translation(s) of the literary text. Students are asked to examine and compare their own texts with the professional translation(s) alongside the original L1 text in order to see, consider, and discuss alternative ways to render parts of the original L1 literary text, as well as to identify flaws in accuracy and the construction of meaning in the professional translation(s). This work is discussed in the final class for the particular text and importantly adds further to the conviction students have already developed that translation is a process and may involve multiple interpretations as well as uncertainties. It instructs them to hold regard for the integrity of their own work. This brings closure to the translation task.

Conclusion and Research Recommendations

This article has presented a rationale for instruction of L1 (Japanese)-to-L2 (English) literary translation in college EFL settings to support the methodological approach described by Porcaro (1998). Theory and practice are interactive and interdependent. While theory informs practice, what works in practice must be incorporated with theory in the formulation of a unified and understandable approach to pedagogy that bears meaningful outcomes that advance the language development of foreign language learners.

This article has attempted to convey an understanding of the foundations that support the practice of one kind of translation that can be a very effective means of language learning. However, much further work in this area of instruction and learning needs to be done, including empirical research. Yet, one of the factors still limiting further studies is the fact that very few EFL teachers are involved in any instruction of this kind. It is hoped that a synergism will emerge in which more and more teachers assume positive views toward translation instruction and attempt to undertake it in their classrooms while research further explores and clarifies the issues involved and thereby strengthens its theoretical and methodological foundations.

Perhaps the most fundamental question needing empirical quantitative research regards the assertion in this paper that translation develops EFL learners' writing abilities in ways different from and beyond usual writing tasks. Specifically, does translation instruction from suitable L1 literary texts into L2 English raise the quality of second language writing of college EFL learners to any greater degree or in any different manner than the composition writing tasks that are completed directly in English in a general writing course? It must be implicit in an empirical investigation that integral to the translation task is the judicious selection of literary texts and the employment of the instructional/learning methodology of process writing that includes teacher-student conferencing and peer collaboration as discussed in this paper. Within this research, the specific aspects of students' writing that may be affected need systematic investigation, as well as does the nature of the process involved in translation. For example, in looking into the translation strategies employed by students, the inclusion of think-aloud protocols, interviews, and observations in the research design may yield insightful results. The attitudes and perceptions of students in such a translation course gathered from questionnaires and interviews would be important to the research inquiry. One other factor that should not be overlooked is the effect of the enthusiasm and

conviction of the teacher on the outcomes from such a course. The collective translation work of more than 150 students over a period of ten years, along with composition and academic writing coursework from a number of the same students for comparison, has provided me with convincing documentation of the effectiveness of translation instruction as described in this article and in Porcaro (1998) for foreign language acquisition and for the development of L2 writing competence. Nevertheless, empirical evidence based on an appropriate research design will be needed to establish the legitimacy and effectiveness of this approach.

My experience has been that students find satisfaction, reward, enjoyment, and challenge in the task of L1 (Japanese)-to-L2 (English) literary translation. Students working with selected texts from a rich field of L1 literature in a translation writing process that includes teacher-student conferencing and peer collaboration has generated remarkable English language products. (See the Appendix for a representative example.) The methodology, with an understanding of its foundations, needs to be appreciated and applied on a far greater scale in the world of EFL instruction.

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[1] Synergism, or synergistic effect, refers to the action of two different effects acting together to create a greater effect than the sum of the actions produced by each acting independently.

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Appendix

Following is the final copy of a translation of the delicate and challenging text of the short story, *Amagasa*, by Yasunari Kawabata, written by a second-year university student in the translation course described in this article. The student's errors remain intact.

Umbrella

It was a spring rain, like a mist, which didn't get one wet, but somehow dampened the skin. The girl who rushed outside noticed the rain for the first time. "It's raining?"

The boy had opened his umbrella to cover his shyness as he passed in front of the shop where the girl was sitting rather than to protect himself from the rain.

But the boy held the umbrella over the girl in silence. She came under his umbrella in only her one shoulder. Though he was getting wet, he couldn't come closer to her and ask her to come in. While she wanted to hold the handle of the umbrella with him, she looked as if she was about to get away from his umbrella.

They went into a photo shop. His father, who was a government official, planned to transfer far away. This was a farewell photograph.

"Please sit side by side over there." The photographer pointed to a sofa, but the boy couldn't sit with her side by side. The boy stood behind the girl and his finger, which he put on the sofa, touched her *haori* lightly because he wanted to believe that their bodies were somewhere connected. It was the first time he touched her body. His finger felt her faint temperature and he felt a warmth as if he hugged her naked body.

As long as he lived, whenever he looked at this photograph, he would remember her body temperature.

"May I take another photograph? Sitting side by side. I want to take the upper half of your bodies."

The boy only nodded and whispered to her. "Your hair?"

The girl looked up at the boy, blushed, and then ran to the makeup room gently like a child with her eyes shining with bright joy.

When she had seen him passing in front of the shop, she had rushed outside and had had no time to arrange her hair. She always was worried about her disheveled hair that looked as if she had just taken off a bathing cap. But she was a shy girl who couldn't do up her hair in front of a man. The boy also had thought that what he had told her to do up her hair would have embarrassed her.

The brightness that she went to the makeup room brightened him also. With this brightness, the boy and the girl sat close together on the sofa as a natural act.

As the boy was going out of the photo shop, he looked for his umbrella. As he looked casually, he noticed that the girl, who had gone out before him, had brought the umbrella and stood outside. She didn't realize that she had brought his umbrella and gone out until she was seen by him. And then she was surprised. With her casual behavior, might she have indicated that she felt that she was his?

The boy couldn't ask her to hold the umbrella. The girl also couldn't hand the umbrella to him. But it was a different way from which they had come to the photo shop. Suddenly they had become grown-ups, and they went back with a feeling like a married couple. That was caused only by a thing about an umbrella.

Reviews

『SLA研究と外国語教育－文献紹介－』JACET SLA研究会編．東京：リーベル出版．2000．198頁．(*Literature in SLA Research and Foreign Language Teaching* - Reviewed by Sumio Tsuchiya)

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文教大学

This book was produced as a result of the collaboration of the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) SLA study group members. Its general aim is to provide information on recent SLA literature for those Japanese students and teachers who are interested or engaged in second/foreign language teaching. Twenty-three college teachers participated in the project, covering 21 topics in SLA research. The topics are grouped into three domains: (1) a general survey of research, (2) theories and methodology, and (3) foreign language teaching. In each topic, 10 to 12 books and articles written in English or in Japanese have been selected out of those published over the past dozen years. Each topic covers most, though not all, of the important books and articles published, and the readers of the book will certainly be satisfied with the selection of publications. Not only students and practicing teachers but also even scholars engaged in this field will gain useful information concerning recent literature in SLA research and foreign language teaching.

最近のSLA研究を21の領域に分け、JACET（大学英語教育学会）SLA研究会の23名のメンバーが手分けして主要な文献を紹介している本である。大学および大学院でSLAまたは外国語教育を専攻している学生にとってはたいへん便利である。研究者にとっても、自分の専門以外の領域についてちょっと調べたいときなどに役に立つ。評者自身もさっそく利用させてもらっている。また評者の勤める大学院の学生研究室にも数冊常備し、いつでも利用できるようにしている。

この本の必要性は、近年のSLA研究が量的に猛烈な勢いで拡大していることから必然的に生じたものである。世界で発行されるSLA関係の書籍の数は膨大なもので、毎年どころか毎月発行されるものですら、その完全なリストを作ることは難しいであろう。またSLA関係のジャーナルも、個人でそのすべてに目を通すことが困難なほど数多く発刊されている。本書には19種類の主要ジャーナルについてそのホームページを掲げており、この情報も非常に役に立つ。ただしそれらはすべて英語を主

要言語とするジャーナルなので、他の言語によるジャーナルを加えることも今後検討する必要があるだろう。それらはその言語を解する人たちだけのものだから、どうしてもローカルなものになる。ローカルなものであっても貴重な文献があるに違いない。そういうものをインターナショナルな情報網に掬い上げるにはどうしたらよいか。これはこれからの大きな課題である。それはともかく、本書が日本語の文献を積極的に取り上げたことは大いに評価したい。

さてSLAの研究は、その理論的研究と外国語教育への応用の２つの分野に分けられる。本書はこれにSLA研究の概観を加え、大きく３つの部門に分けている。最初のSLA研究の概観では、本書はまず7点の包括的文献を紹介し、その後に３点の教室への応用に役立つ文献を取り上げている。1点を除いてはすべて1990年代に出たもので、英語の文献が8点、日本語のものが2点で、英語の文献8点のうち4点は日本語訳（抄訳を含む）がある。包括的文献として何を選ぶかはこの種の本として重要な問題であるが、日本人の英語教師として知っておくべきものとしては無難な選定であろう。観点をすこし変えればこんな本、あんな本ときりがないことになる。ただ評者としてはもう１点、山岡俊比古『第２言語習得研究』を入れてほしかったと思う。これは日本人研究者によって90年代に書かれた本格的概説書としてほとんど唯一のものである。ついでにもうひとつ、翻訳本があることを紹介してくれることはありがたいが、それらの中には誤訳に満ちた信用できないものもあるので、学生に使用させるときには注意する必要がある。

第２部の「理論と研究」では、まず第２言語習得の基本的な問題が４つの領域に分類されて、それぞれに12点ずつの文献が紹介されている。インプットとアウトプットの役割、学習ストラテジー、学習者要因という領域が選ばれたことは当然であるが、ここに暗示的・明示的学習のトピックが入っていることに興味をもった。これはSchmidt (1990) のSLAにおける意識の役割に関する論文によって提起されたトピックであるが、ウィリアム・ジェイムズの心理学以来100年近く埃をかぶっていた「意識」という概念が、認知科学の視点から再び光が当てられることになったのは感慨ぶかい。このトピックの解説者は最近10年間に発表された文献を手ぎわよく紹介している。

さらにこの第２部は、社会言語学的アプローチとして語用論、談話分析、社会言語学、コミュニケーション能力の４つの領域を取り上げ、最後にSLAの研究方法に関する文献を紹介している。しかしながら、1980年代以降のUGとSLAが関わる領域の研究は本書では取り上げていない。むろん取り上げていないから駄目だというわけではないが、評者としては入れてほしかったと思う。なぜならUGは抽象度が高くなったとはいえ、英語教師のまだまだ目の離せない分野だからである。

第３部はSLAが外国語教育と関わる領域を扱っている。取り上げられた領域は、まずリスニング、スピーキング、リーディング、ライティン

グの研究と指導に始まり、ついで音声、語彙、文法の指導、およびテスティングの研究に及んでいる。これらの領域の中で注目すべきことは、リーディングの領域で紹介されている文献11点のうち4点が日本語の文献だということである。日本における英語教育は、環境的にESLではなくてEFLである。SLA研究においてはこれまでESLが主流を占めていたことはやむを得ないとしても、世界における英語の需要からして、これからはEFL研究がもっと主体性を発揮すべきである。日本は国家的事業としてEFLを長年にわたって熱心に実践してきた国である。その意味でリーディングの領域で優れた研究が出てきたことは喜ばしい。これが他の領域、特にライティングや語彙、文法の領域にまで拡大することを期待したい。

また第3部の最後にCALL、バイリンガル教育、児童英語教育の３つの領域についての文献を取り上げていることに注目したい。英語指導におけるインターネットの利用はもはや必須のものとなりつつあり、遅ればせながらこれからCALLに取り組もうとしている人も多いと思われる。そのような人には本書のCALL関係の文献紹介はありがたい。バイリンガル教育は日本でも注目されている研究領域であり、このトピックで日本語でもすでにいくつかの図書や論文が発表されている。本書に紹介されている文献を見るかぎりでは、日本におけるバイリンガル教育の研究はこれからだという気がする。同じことが児童英語教育についても言える。公立小学校における英語教育が現実のものになろうとしているにもかかわらず、この領域における本格的研究はまだあまりにも寡少であり、貧弱だと言ってよいくらいである。この状態で実践が先行するとすれば、大方が予想するように、試行錯誤にならざるを得ないであろう。そこから大きな混乱が生じる危険は十分に予測される。この分野に関連した幅広い研究が早急に開始されることを期待したい。

最後に、多くの研究者の協力を必要とするこの種の仕事を継続することはなかなか骨の折れることであるが、このSLA文献紹介を10年くらいの単位で今後も出していただけるとありがたい。

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The Practice of English Language Teaching (3rd edition). Jeremy Harmer. Harlow, UK: Pearson-Longman, 2001. 371 pp.

Reviewed by
Joseph Tomei
Kumamoto Gakuen University

Considering the multitude of paths people take to become ESL teachers, one would think that a book that tries to answer the question "What do I need to know to teach ESL/EFL?" would be an impossibility. However, Jeremy Harmer has taken these difficulties in stride and updated a remarkable volume that not only answers the question, but puts readers on the path to learning more about a specific topic or concern.

An Internet search reveals that this book is a required or recommended text not only for a number of certification and degree programs, but also as a recommendation for people about to embark on a variety of actual ESL programs. This achievement is not simply by default because the book addresses such a wide range of concerns that I would feel comfortable recommending it to almost anyone.

The text has been revised in ten-year intervals, with the first edition published in 1983, the second in 1991, and this third edition. It is useful and yet frightening to step back for a moment and see the changes that ten years have brought. For example, when Bill Clinton was elected in 1992, he noted that there were only fifty sites on the Internet. However, Harmer has not fallen prey to the temptation of simply tacking on a final computer section for a "new" edition. Indeed, what impressed me about this new edition was the integration of computer- and technology-based ideas within the framework of the book, showing how the Internet and the computer represent an extension of teaching techniques rather than a new world in which the old rules don't apply. The book also eschews long lists of URLs, a choice that I believe is quite defensible given the change and turnover we continue to see in the Internet.

A comparison between the tables of contents in the first and third editions is enlightening. The first edition has eleven chapters placed into three broad categories: Theory, Practice, and Management and Planning. This reflects a certainty about how things fit together. You learn the theory, you teach the class, and then you figure out how to turn in your grades. The third edition has twenty-four chapters, bro-

ken up into nine broad sections, which are: Language, Learners and Teachers; Theories, Methods, and Techniques; Managing Classes; Focusing on Language; Receptive and Productive Skills; Design and Planning; Evaluation; and Looking Further. While not as neat as the tripartite division, this is much more realistic and reflects an awareness that everything is related.

One should note that some of the section titles are misleading when viewed without a context. For example, the Focusing on Language section puts together study skills, using dictionaries and corpora, and teaching pronunciation while Evaluation examines only test-related issues. A discussion of assessment falls in the Theories, Methods, and Techniques section.

The book's usefulness as a text for teacher training is evident in the follow-up tasks given, the chapter notes and further reading section, and in the listing of follow-up tasks. However, one caveat is that it presumes university (or at least sophisticated high school) learners. One imagines that a future edition will have to devote space to teaching children. In addition, Harmer does not assume that the learner is always going to be motivated to learn the language, and thus there is a chapter (albeit brief) about problematic behavior in the classroom.

The bibliography is a treasure trove, with over 450 different references to actual published texts with a smattering of presentation and plenary speeches that are often impossible to obtain, especially if you work overseas. Also revealing is the fact that no author (including Harmer himself) has more than five references, so this is truly a wide-ranging bibliography of the field. Also adding to the value of this book is the wide range of activities and exercises that are given as examples. Though I was familiar with many of them, their juxtaposition gave me new uses for such exercises.

As a final note, the volume is published as a paperback, keeping it affordable. I feel that both the newcomer and the veteran teacher will find this book of benefit.

A Dictionary of Loanword Usage.
Prem Motwani. Tokyo: Maruzen Co., Ltd., 1991. xvii + 259 pp.

Tuttle New Dictionary of Loanwords in Japanese.
Taeko Kamiya. Tokyo: Charles E. Tuttle Publishing Company, Inc., 1994. xxxiii + 382 pp.

Reviewed by
Frank E. Daulton
Ryukoku University

In Japan there are dozens of thick *gairaigo* dictionaries, containing tens of thousands of mostly obscure loanwords. Researchers cannot easily use them to know the universe of basic loanwords, nor can students of Japanese study them for must-know vocabulary. By contrast, two useful dictionaries for non-native speakers do describe the common *gairaigo* lexicon. They are: *A Dictionary of Loanword Usage* (1991) by Prem Motwani, a professor of Japanese and chairman of the Center for East Asia Languages at Jawaharlal Nehru University in New Delhi; and *Tuttle New Dictionary of Loanwords in Japanese* (1994) by Taeko Kamiya, author of textbooks such as *Speak Japanese Today* and recently retired from the Defense Language Institute in Monterey, California.

These two similarly claim to present the common, or high frequency, loanwords in Japanese. Yet these works are certainly as different as their authors' techniques and sources. First, Motwani explains his approach. "Four-thousand-odd entries have been selected in a methodical way from the Japanese-Japanese dictionaries, books, articles and research papers on loanwords by Japanese, TV, radio, posters, ad, conversational Japanese and Japanese informants" (p. v).

This approach—as described—draws on a broad spectrum of sources, including academic ones. Whether corpus-based frequency data were involved is not clear, however.

In contrast, Kamiya describes her dictionary as containing "approximately 4000 loanwords strictly selected for their frequency—those used most often in daily conversation, radio, television, newspapers, and magazines" (p. viii). Notwithstanding, in an interview, Kamiya clarified her approach, saying she had actually used her native-speaker "com-

mon sense" to pick out the most common words from a comprehensive *gairaigo* dictionary—whose sources, presumably, were those listed above.

In sum, Motwani's approach might be characterized as more objective and academic and Kamiya's as subjective and intuitive. This leads to the intriguing question of which distinctly different approach better captures today's common *gairaigo*.

A Yes/No comprehension test—including nonsense words as a validity check—measured the rate at which 31 Japanese university students comprehended a total of 92 loanwords in these two dictionaries. Words were sampled in the valid way described by Nation (1993). The results indicated that Kamiya's dictionary, whose items were known at a rate of 86 percent, better captures today's common *gairaigo* than Motwani's dictionary at 80.8 percent.

There is a surprising lack of overlap between the two dictionaries. By a simple count of headwords, about 30 percent of the words in the "A" section of Motwani's dictionary are not in Kamiya' "A" section. Meanwhile, about 39 percent of Kamiya's "A" words are not in Motwani's.

It is not clear, however, which dictionary contains more loanwords. Publishers' claims are notoriously inaccurate about the number of words contained, and not verifying this number leads to various fatal errors in one's research (see Nation, 1993). While Motwani claims "4,000 odd entries," a manual count found only 3,019 headwords. Kamiya's publisher's description and her own preface differ—the former saying "over 3,000" and the latter saying "approximately 4,000." The actual number was 3,427. If one includes the 211 place names in the appendix, the total is 3,638. However, many of these were also listed in the body of the dictionary.

As one can begin to see, such raw counts are deceptive. Dictionary makers have various approaches concerning what deserves an individual listing, and Motwani's and Kamiya's dictionaries differed in their treatment of compound words, proper nouns, abbreviations, and so on. Kamiya's overall approach would have resulted in a greater (artificial) inflation of her total word count than would have Motwani's.

These dictionaries are actually quite different, and this has interesting implications. Considering their sources, Kamiya's dictionary probably has a greater "everyday Japanese" focus but a narrower breadth, overall, than Motwani's. While both dictionaries mostly contain common loanwords, the over 2,000 loanwords that appear to be in one dictionary but not the other indicate that each dictionary alone is not

exhaustive. And the fact that a sizeable portion of the words in both dictionaries is now unfamiliar to native speakers could reflect the dictionaries' respective ages and the ever-changing loanword lexicon. Therefore, researchers and students needing a fairly complete and accessible listing of today's common *gairaigo* might best obtain both dictionaries, at least until a newer and better one is available.

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Critical Applied Linguistics: A Critical Introduction. Alastair Pennycook. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2001. 206 pp.

Reviewed by
Robert Mahon
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With the publication of his article, "Towards a critical applied linguistics for the 1990s" in 1990, Alastair Pennycook sowed a seed that has borne much fruit over the past decade. Throughout the 1990s, Pennycook published extensively in various language journals, in what he refers to as "ten years of trying to relate critical work in many domains to my own fields of practice in applied linguistics" (p. 21). He acted as special editor for the 1999 *TESOL Quarterly* special issue on critical theory.

Critical Applied Linguistics: A Critical Introduction is a much awaited publication, which serves as a synthesis of Pennycook's diverse and challenging insights and as a lucid introduction into the world of critical applied linguistics. The introductory chapter provides an overview of different approaches to critical work and the domains of critical

applied linguistics. Pennycook rejects the notion of applied linguistics as the application of one domain of knowledge (linguistics) to a particular context (usually language teaching). Critical applied linguistics is interdisciplinary, semi-autonomous and open to a whole array of issues, such as identity, sexuality and the reproduction of Otherness. Characteristics include an awareness of the limits of our knowing, a constant questioning of all pre-existing categories, and an ethical concern for overcoming inequitable power relations in society. Along with an exposition of the concerns of "CALx," chapter one also outlines its domains, such as critical approaches to discourse analysis, translation, language teaching and language rights. In this chapter alone, then, the researcher or educator will find not only much food for thought, but also a wealth of perspectives and insights which challenge previously held positions. This is as it should be; Pennycook makes clear that CALx is a problematizing practice that rejects the idea of producing a model to be applied or an orthodoxy to be believed and does this in favor of the endeavor to imagine and bring into existence a new way of thinking and doing that integrates thought, desire, and action (cf. Simon, 1992).

The author's understanding of concepts such as *praxis*, *heterosis*, and *politics* is clearly explained here. The book itself is organized around *politics*, understood as that which concerns the workings of power. Thus we have "The Politics of Power," covering various sociolinguistic concerns, such as language planning, the global spread of English, and postcolonialism.

A problematizing practice with a poststructuralist theoretical base has discursive mapping as its goal; chapter four, "The Politics of Text," shows how this discursive mapping can be developed in critical literacy and critical discourse analysis. Educators will be particularly interested in the following chapter on "The Politics of Pedagogy," which provides a clear account of forms of capital in the writings of Bourdieu, along with an assessment of strengths and weaknesses in the influential French writer. The use of charts throughout the book to provide overviews of various domains is particularly helpful.

Notions of identity and language learning have gained increasing prominence in TESOL research in recent years (e.g., Norton, 2000); and these are amply explored in "The Politics of Difference," which promotes engaged research into issues of subjectivity, gender, and dominance, based on the understanding that identity is something "we perform through language rather than... something reflected in language" (p. 162).

Without a doubt, Pennycook offers the reader "Applied Linguistics with an Attitude" (to use the eloquent title of the final chapter). Not only does his work subvert the validity of SLA research based on essentialized identities, it also provides a cohesive vision of how key domains fit together in the world of critical applied linguistics.

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